



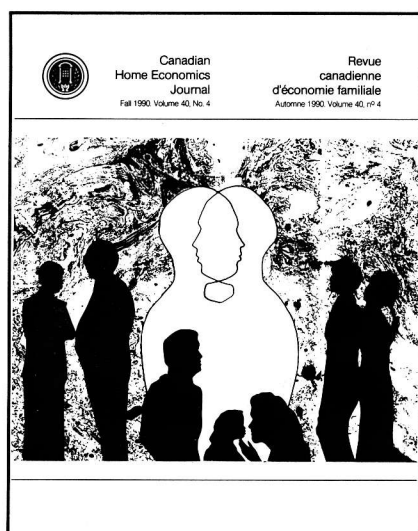
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Canadian Home Economics Association
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Tel: (613) 238-8817/238-8819

CHEJ EDITORIAL OFFICE

Lethbridge Community College
3000 College Drive South
Lethbridge, AB, T1K 1L6, Canada

Editor/Rédactrice en chef

Glenda Everett, PHEC, MS
Program Administrator
Lethbridge Community College
Lethbridge, AB, T1K 1L6
Tel: (403) 320-3343
(403) 329-6948

Associate Editor/ Rédactrice associée

MaryAnn Joly, PHEC
Home Economist
Canadian Western Natural
Gas Company Limited
Lethbridge, AB, T1H 2A9
Tel: (403) 327-4551
(403) 381-0428

Contributing Editor/ Rédactrice en collaboration

Brenda White
Nutrition Educator
Dairy Nutrition Council
#6, 2111 Centre St. N.
Calgary AB, T2E 2T2
Tel: (403) 276-5884 (W)
252-9080 (H)
Fax: (403) 277-1854

Book Review Editor/ Rédactrice des comptes rendus

Linda West, PHEC
Home Economist
Canadian Western Natural
Gas Company Limited
Lethbridge, AB, T1H 2A9
Tel: (403) 327-4551
(403) 756-3560

French Editor/Rédactrice française

Carmelle Therien-Viau
Retired
C.P. 192
Prevost, Quebec J0R 1T0
Tel: (514) 224-2738

Research Editor/ Rédactrice des articles de recherches

Betty Crown, PhD
Dept. of Clothing and Textiles
301 Printing Services Building
Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2N1
Tel: (403) 492-2774

Advisor/Consultante

Eloise Comeau Murray
Dean, Faculty of Home Economics
University of Alberta
Edmonton, AB, T6G 2M8
Tel: (403) 432-3883
(403) 433-1647

Business Manager/ Administratrice

CHEA National Office
901-151 Slater St.
Ottawa, ON, Canada
K1P 5H3

Advertising Representative/ Représentant de publicité

CHEA National Office
901-151 Slater St.
Ottawa, ON, Canada
K1P 5H3

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L'Association une économie familiale est un organisme professionnel national regroupant les personnes qui travaillent ou sont diplômées en études sur la famille ou en consommation, en alimentation, nutrition, économie familiale et écologie humaine. La mission de l'association est de renforcer la profession et de promouvoir une plus grande qualité de la vie pour les particuliers et les familles au Canada et le monde en voie de développement.

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You owe it to your professional self to be a member of CHEA and to encourage other home economists to be members.

Write to the National Office, 901-151 Slater Street, Ottawa ON, K1P 5H3, for information today or better yet, phone (613) 238-8819.

Reader Forum

February 6, 1990

Dear Editor:

The Tandy Leather Company advertisement (CHEJ, Winter 1990, p. 24) is offensive. It reinforces sexism and classism by a) conveying a view of women as egocentric (See Vaines same issue), b) presenting an unreal representation of women's everyday lives, c) promoting an image of women as enemies, in competition for others' gaze, and d) suggesting women should be subject to constant internal and external appraisal, and consequently permanent disapproval. Construction of women in this light is typical of popular magazines. It seems incongruous to me that CHEJ would do likewise.

What happened to CHEA's concern for the well-being of individuals and families, professional ethics, and the image of home economics? Who decided to run this advertisement? How was the decision made? What controls are there? CHEJ must respond.

Yours sincerely
Linda Eyre, BHEc, MAHed
Doctoral Candidate
The University of British Columbia
Vancouver, B.C. V6T 1Z5

Editorial Response:

The decision to run the Tandy ad was made by National Office, headquarters for the CHE Journal. Tandy Leather Company has been an exhibitor at recent CHEA conferences, and is well known to CHEA.

Current Journal editorial policy states that:

- (1) The content of advertisements must be ethical (ie. accurate as to detail), must not be critical of other products, and must not be deceptive or misleading.
- (2) Statements describing the properties of products must be able to be verified by adequate experimental data that is available in current literature or from a reputable independent laboratory.

This advertisement does not contravene those standards.

As for claims pertaining to this ad's denigration of women, this awareness is just being raised within the association. A 1990 AGM motion has mandated CHEA to incorporate a variety of gender issues awareness activities into its 1990-91 initiatives. Over time, CHEA policies will reflect increased sensitivity to such inequities.

May 4, 1990

Dear Editor:

How refreshing to come across an article like *Food irradiation: Is it safe and wholesome?* by Shirley Rebus (Winter 1990.) Articles on food irradiation frequently seem to have leaped almost verbatim from AECL public relations brochures to the pages of journals or newspapers. Ms Rebus

has aptly pointed out, however, many of the concerns of food irradiation critics. As the author states, food irradiation cannot be proclaimed as safe due to conflicting experimental evidence. Indeed, testing the safety of irradiated foods poses a peculiar difficulty.

The usual test method (giving animals exaggerated doses of the substance being tested) cannot be used, since, in the words of scientist Dr. Richard Piccioni, "if you increase the radiation level 1000 times, then you don't have food anymore — you have carbon dioxide and water". Thus scientists studying food irradiation are limited to test methods which are much less sensitive.

The Canadian government has recently paved the way for food irradiation in this country with the passing of new and much less stringent testing regulations. The nuclear industry, faced with dwindling reactor sales and serious financial problems, is champing at the bit to forge ahead with this technology. Yet, incredibly, no long-term human health studies on food irradiation have been conducted. It seems that Canadian consumers are to serve as guinea pigs in what scientist Dr. Rosalie Bertell calls "a massive experimental programme on humans."

Three further dangers need to be addressed.

Bacterially contaminated food can be disguised or 'laundered' by food irradiation and sold as fresh. Numerous cases of such abuse have come to light in Europe. The irradiation industry has a dismal environmental safety record. Environmental contamination is inevitable as high-level radioactive material is transported, used, and 'disposed' of. No safe method exists for storing the dangerous wastes produced by food irradiation. Workers in the irradiation industry risk disease and death from malfunctioning equipment, radiation leaks, or accidental exposure of the radioactive source.

Finally, new Canadian labelling regulations for irradiated food contain several serious loopholes. The following foods are not required to be identified as irradiated: irradiated ingredients making up less than 10% of a product; irradiated restaurant or hospital food; and meat from animals fed irradiated food.

Seventy-five percent of Canadians, according to a recent poll, are opposed to food irradiation. Yet the federal government and the nuclear industry are moving us steadily toward a technology that we reject. It is clear that knowledgeable and cautious consumers are now the front line in the food irradiation controversy.

Yours truly,
Ms. Lorna Kopelow

Note: The sources of the quotes in this letter are as follows:

- Dr. Richard Piccioni, Accord Research and Educational Associates, quoted by Rick Weiss, "The gamma-ray gourmet", *Science News*, Vol. 132, Dec. 19 & 26, 1987, p. 399.
Dr. Rosalie Bertell, quoted by Linda Pim, "In praise of unscience", *Harrowsmith Magazine*, May/June 1989, #85.

President's Message



Linda McKay

About Our New President

Linda McKay obtained a BS in Home Economics from the University of North Carolina, a MS (Textiles and Clothing/Sociology) from the University of Maryland and has a teaching certificate for the states of North Carolina and Maryland. She is presently completing a PhD (Organization and Administrative Studies) from Wayne State University and has been the recipient of the Mary A. Clarke Honor Award (1988) and the Fiftieth Anniversary Award (1989).

Linda has held numerous positions within the association, including 1981-83 National Vice-President, 1982-84 Member of Textiles and Clothing Committee, and 1988-90 President-elect. She is also a member of the Ontario Home Economics Association, Canadian University Teachers of Home Economics, Apparel Studies Association of Canada, to name a few. She is the author of numerous books, scholarly papers, research reports, and abstracts.

Currently, Linda holds the rank of Associate Professor in the Department of Home Economics (University of Windsor). She is returning from study leave and will be teaching in the Family Studies Program and the Faculty of Education.

The Calgary Executive has handed over a mature, efficient organization — CHEA has come of age — streamlined by structural changes accommodated in the federated structure. This leaves the national association and national office in an excellent position to deal with policy and issues.

I begin the term of office with overall ideas, concepts, and some concrete plans. The first phase of my term of office will be used to focus attention on developing a specific agenda designed to continue to move our association forward. Leaders must stand for something and have some idea where the enterprise is going. The specifics will evolve, but the dream must have a clear sense of what our association is, what it ought to be doing, where it is headed, and what it is to become. I want to provide leadership that goes beyond merely managing the system to helping the system achieve its next stage of evolution. Presidents cannot expect to be effective unless they possess ideas about what the Association should look like in the future and then use other personal and professional skills to move along the charted course. Without vision there is no evident challenge; and no overt, compelling need for people to follow.

During my time as president it is my intent that the Association will not be satisfied with partial solutions; we will not accept the status quo; we will seek new ways and will take maximum advantage of opportunities.

Presently, the concerns include attracting and retaining members, providing the services that meet the needs of members, and securing the resources to continue present operations and respond to projected changes in operations.

L'exécutif de Calgary a amené notre association à un point de maturité et d'efficacité. CHEA, l'ACDEF, est devenue adulte! Des changements en perspectives sont heureux. Le Bureau national est maintenant en excellente position pour élaborer de nouvelles politiques. Je commence mon travail de présidente avec des concepts et des idées plus vastes et quelques projets concrets.

Durant la première partie de mon mandat, l'avancement de notre association sera mon premier objectif. Toute personne qui dirige une association doit en connaître les principes directeurs et savoir où ces principes mèneront. Nos objectifs doivent évoluer dans le sens clair et précis de ce qu'est notre association, de ce qu'elle doit faire, de ce qu'elle veut devenir et où elle veut aller.

Mon désir, comme présidente, est de diriger l'association et de l'aider à atteindre son prochain stade d'évolution. Un président ne peut atteindre son but que s'il a une vision de l'avenir de l'association et s'il sait s'entourer de spécialistes qui aideront son avancement.

Sans une vision claire du futur, le défi à relever n'est pas évident : il est important que chacun travaille avec la présidente.

Durant mon mandat, je veux que notre association trouve des solutions satisfaisantes à ses problèmes. Nous chercherons de nouvelles avenues et nous utiliserons au maximum les occasions qui se présenteront.

Déjà l'attention est portée sur les membres. Il est important de conserver nos membres actuels et d'en attirer de nouveaux. Nous essaierons de procurer des services et

In response to dramatic changes in society, technology, and information bases, CHEA should examine its missions and goals. A change in the Association's mission will mean change in structures and procedures as a new mission is implemented.

The implementation of a mission statement and goals is a process — not an event.

I pledge my best efforts in carrying out the mission and achieving the goals of the Association, and in working to deliver services and programs on time and within budget.

The members of CHEA need to focus on the quality of life for all people, with an orientation to human development over the lifespan. We need to incorporate single person households, foster or institutionalized children, and older adults living with supportive care. Therefore, our attention is on people — not just families. We need to stress the concept of diversity, not just of race or of geographical location etc., but also diversity of ideas so that we address divergent ideas from a critical analysis framework.

I look forward to the challenge of the office and I thank you for the privilege.

nous élaborerons des programmes qui répondent aux besoins et aux attentes de chacun. Nous essaierons de trouver les ressources financières pour continuer le travail actuel et pour répondre aux besoins futurs.

Pour faire face aux réalités dramatiques actuelles, à l'évolution technologique, et à toute information nouvelle, l'ACDEF doit reviser sa mission et ses objectifs. Tout changement de la mission de l'association entraîne un changement de nos structures et un changement de la marche à suivre des nouvelles orientations.

De nouveaux concepts d'orientation et de nouveaux objectifs suppose une période de gestation.

Je m'efforcerai de mener à bien les nouveaux projets. Je concentrerai mes efforts à la réalisation des services et des programmes en temps voulu tout en tenant compte des possibilités financières de l'association.

En tant que membres de l'ACDEF, nous devons viser une qualité de vie pour tous et aider au développement humain. Cette préoccupation doit inclure les familles monoparentales, les enfants abandonnés, les adultes du troisième âge qui ont besoin d'aide. Nous nous intéresserons autant aux individus qu'aux familles. Nous devons aussi renforcer chez-nous l'idée de diversité et de pluralité, non seulement quant aux réalités ethniques mais aussi quant à nos idées elles-mêmes et nous efforcer d'avoir une vue analytique et critique des points de vue qui divergent.

Je réalise le défi que constitue le travail de présidente et je vous remercie de la confiance que vous m'avez accordée.

Financial Planning Services: Consumer-related Issues

Nancy Higgitt and Linda McFadyen

Abstract

The financial planning industry is rapidly expanding in Canada. As a result of this growth, certain problems have been identified both for professionals who offer planning services, and, consumers who seek their advice. This paper describes how the system works now, identifies some of the problems incurred, and makes some recommendations for change.

Résumé

La planification financière des industries est en expansion rapide au Canada. Cette expansion cause certains problèmes aux professionnels qui offrent des services de planification et aux consommateurs qui recherchent de l'information. Cet article donne une description du système, identifie certains problèmes et propose des recommandations.

The demand for financial planning services has increased significantly in recent years. An increasingly complex array of financial products, together with the collapse of some financial institutions and a tighter economy, has resulted in more consumers seeking professional advice about financial planning.

Many financial institutions see this demand as a "window of opportunity"

Nancy Higgitt (BHEc, MSc, Family Studies, University of Manitoba) is a lecturer in the Department of Family Studies and is completing a PhD in sociology at the University of Manitoba. **Linda McFadyen** (BHEc, Family Studies, University of Manitoba) is a 1990 family studies graduate from the University of Manitoba.



(Hess, 1986). Consequently, financial planning services are often offered at subsidized rates as a means of attracting clients to the real money-making business of selling financial products. Banks, for instance, seem increasingly interested in the lucrative field of financial planning, and deregulation of the banking industry will permit them to become more involved (Hess, 1986; Ridlehuber, 1986). A disturbing outcome of these changes is that it is becoming more difficult for consumers to differentiate among services when shopping for financial advice.

How the System Works Now

At the present time, financial planning is not a clearly defined field. Life insurance agents, stockbrokers, bankers, accountants, investment advisers, estate planners, and others including some home economists, offer

financial planning services, and many refer to themselves as financial planners. Currently, the industry has no educational requirements, code of ethics, or rules with respect to practice and consumers have little recourse outside of the courts in the event of a dispute (LeMay, 1985). In fact, there is not a clear understanding regarding the meaning of the term financial planner. These conditions make it difficult when shopping for financial planning services. Consumers need to understand that financial planners vary considerably according to professional affiliation and associated regulatory bodies, educational background, and the forms of compensation received.

Professional Affiliation

Those persons providing financial planning services may be affiliated

with a variety of professional groups each with specific titles (Pattison, 1988). These include Chartered Accountant (CA), Certified Management Accountant (CMA), Chartered Financial Planner (CFP), Registered Financial Planner (RFP), Chartered Financial Consultant (ChFC), Chartered Life Underwriter (CLU), and Professional Home Economist (PHEC). Others without a specific professional affiliation often refer to themselves simply as financial planners.

Regulatory Body

At this time, financial planners are not regulated as a distinct group. Some planners, such as chartered accountants and lawyers are regulated by their professional organizations and are subject to the specific codes of those professions (Pattison, 1988). Insurance agents, for instance, are subject to regulations in Insurance Acts, while those trading in securities are regulated by the Securities Commission. Some planners belong to quasi-professional organizations, whereas others are answerable only to themselves or their employers.

While no specific body currently has a mandate to regulate the industry, the Canadian Association of Financial Planners (CAFP) is a voluntary organization concerned with professional standards and conduct (Kingston, 1988). This association designates qualified members as Registered Financial Planners (RFP). To qualify, a person must have practised in the field for at least two years and have passed an association exam. There are approximately 300 persons with this designation in Canada (Staff, CAFP, Personal communication, February 20, 1990).

Although provincial and federal governments appear to be waiting for evidence of wide-spread abuse before legislating industry-specific standards, some provinces have begun to study the issues. Quebec, in particular, has been working on such legislation for some time (Dougherty, 1988). Currently, Common Law affords some protection regarding negligence as professionals offering "expert" advice have a fiduciary relationship with their clients. The Criminal Code affords protection for serious offenses as well.

Educational Background

Education for financial planners varies considerably and tends to be specific to each professional group

(Hess, 1986; Kingston, 1988). Chartered accountants, for instance, are required to write national accounting exams, whereas, life insurance agents may complete financial planning courses offered by the Institute of Chartered Life Underwriters. Those planners not affiliated with any specific group may or may not have a related educational background. In an effort to address this problem, the Canadian Institute of Financial Planners (CIFP) was established to provide the industry with a standardized education program. Those who successfully complete this program are designated Chartered Financial Planners (CFP).

Forms of Compensation

While compensation among financial planners varies both in amount and form, there are three basic types of compensation (Hess, 1986). Fee only compensation is generally based on an hourly rate, or the value of the client's assets or income. The second type, fee plus commission, is determined by the amount of work involved as well as commissions derived from the purchase of financial products from the planner. Finally, commission only compensation is generally based solely on commissions earned from the financial products sold.

Problems with the Current System

There are obvious problems with the situation as it now stands. The absence of a common regulatory body results in a lack of consistent standards among planners and leaves the system open to possible abuse from both incompetent and unscrupulous practitioners. The lack of educational standards makes it possible for persons to present themselves as financial planners without any related training in the subject matter, and, since there are no requirements for continuing education, there is no guarantee that the advice purchased is based on current information. These conditions make it difficult for consumers to assess the qualifications of planners and the appropriateness of the financial advice offered.

In addition, there is a potential conflict of interest when financial planners sell the products they recommend without disclosing their source of compensation. The consumer needs to know what percentage of compensation comes from commission, since the tendency may be to recommend high commission pro-

ducts. In fact, studies suggest that the recommendations of commissioned salespersons reflect the primary business of the company offering the "free" advice (for example, see "Looking for Mr. Good Plan," 1986). This "free" service may, however, be perceived as the only affordable means of financial advice available to those consumers who believe they do not have sufficiently large incomes or investment portfolios to warrant using fee-only services (Hess, 1986).

Compounding these problems is the difficulty of obtaining recourse if consumers are dissatisfied. The only option may be through the courts. Indeed, there has been one landmark case in Canada, and another is pending in which financial planners have been sued over biased or inappropriate recommendations by dissatisfied clients (Francis, 1988).

Although it appears that regulations common to the whole industry would be useful from the consumer's perspective, some professional groups do not feel a need for further control. They believe their own professional associations sufficiently regulate their sectors of the industry and consequently oppose the idea of a common regulatory body (for example, see Pattison, 1988 and "Time to Accredite," 1988).

How the System Should Work

It is necessary that there be a clear understanding of what is meant by a financial planner. This is a person with a broad range of expertise who gives clients comprehensive, objective advice about their finances based on a thorough analysis of the current situation, including their lifespan position, future goals, and risk tolerance (Dickerson, 1980; Berry, 1984).

Standards should be set for entry level educational requirements. At this level, planners would be generalists capable of providing comprehensive personal financial plans. These persons could act as liaison between clients and specialist advisors. Eventually, a financial planning program at the post-secondary level could become the minimum requirement. As well, continuing education should be mandatory so that planners are exposed to new information and ideas in a rapidly changing industry.

There should be mandatory rules for disclosure regarding, source and amount of compensation, including the percentage of commission received

from products recommended or sold. In addition, promotional compensation or "push money" received for promoting specific products or companies should be disclosed as these incentives may bias recommendations.

The title of financial planner should be registered under legislation in the same manner as home economists are now being registered in some provinces. Such registration assures that only those persons satisfying mandatory requirements would be permitted to call themselves financial planners. Other professional groups such as chartered accountants, lawyers, and investment dealers would not be permitted to use the financial planner designation unless they were registered members. They could, however, be allowed to give advice in their own specific field and could be designated as "specialists".

Government should identify a regulatory body and ensure that it has the power and resources to license, set standards, and discipline members. CAFP appears to be the logical group for this role. It has a generalist outlook and an established standard of education which could more easily accommodate all of the various potential players in the financial planning industry than other more specialized organizations. Although some may

argue that CAFP is limited by its size, mandatory membership would certainly resolve that issue.¹ While there may be initial resistance from other professional groups, their qualifications give them expertise in specialized areas of financial planning and they would be eligible to call themselves financial planners if they became registered members.

Redress procedures should be based on a policy of open justice and should be easily accessible to dissatisfied consumers. Disciplinary hearings should be open to public scrutiny and consumers, as well as professionals, should be members of the regulatory boards.

Conclusion

Implementation of these recommendations would be advantageous for consumers. A clear definition of a financial planner would help consumers to understand the nature and extent of the service provided. The setting of minimum standards of education and professional conduct for general financial planners would give a measure of protection to consumers, and those persons requiring more specialized advice would also have that option. A fair and open method of redress would be available to consumers who were dissatisfied, and minimum standards would give some guidelines by which to evaluate ability and conduct in a dispute.

These recommendations for regulation cannot provide an absolute guarantee of competence and objective advice. Although they can enhance the consumer's position, they are not a substitute for knowledge and understanding of the market place. The selection of a financial planner should be made on the basis of a good track record and referrals from satisfied customers. □

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¹Current membership in CAFP is approximately 1,100.

The Role of Glutenin Protein in Pasta Quality

Lynne Zonneveld

Abstract

Previously the γ -gliadin protein was thought to be the functional protein in pasta quality. Pogna et al. (1988) and Feillet et al. (1989) have recently shown that the γ -gliadin serves only as a genetic marker. Low molecular weight glutenin (LMWG) proteins are the functional proteins in producing good quality pasta (Feillet et al., 1989). Levels of these proteins are higher in cultivars with good cooking quality, 27.7%, than in cultivars with poor cooking quality, 15.1% (Feillet et al., 1989).

The sulfur content of the glutenin protein is functional in producing good quality pasta ($r = 0.835$), specifically the good surface condition of pasta noted by Alary and Kobrehel (1987). Feillet et al. (1989) proposed that LMWG and the sulfur glutenins interact through hydrophobic bonding.

Despite progress in biochemical and genetic knowledge of durum wheat, scientists have not been yet able to completely resolve or identify all the factors responsible for cooking quality of durum wheat pasta (Cubadda, 1989).

Résumé

Auparavant, on croyait que la protéine γ gliadine contribuait à la qualité des pâtes. Pogna et al. en 1988 et Feillet et al. en 1989 ont démontré que la γ gliadine ne contribue qu'à identifier la marque génétique des pâtes. Le faible poids moléculaire des protéines du gluten (LMWG) est fonction de la bonne qualité des pâtes selon Feillet et al. en 1989. Le taux de ces protéines est plus élevé dans le blé "cultivar" quand la cuisson est de bonne qualité soit 27.7% comparé à 15.1% quand la cuisson est de moindre qualité selon Feillet et al. en 1989.

Le soufre contenu dans la protéine du gluten contribue à la bonne qualité des pâtes ($r = 0.835$), particulièrement à la bonne apparence des pâtes selon Alary et Kobrehel en 1987. Feillet et al. en 1989 propose que le faible poids moléculaire des protéines du gluten et le soufre contenu dans le bluten entre en contact avec la soude aqueuse.

En dépit des progrès biochimiques et de la connaissance génétique du blé dur, les scientifiques ont été incapables d'identifier tous les facteurs responsables de la qualité de cuisson des pâtes de blé dur selon Cubadda en 1989.

The focus of this article will be on recent research which shows the importance of protein and its genetic makeup to the quality of pasta. The criteria for analyzing the role of gluten proteins in pasta quality is adapted from Feillet, Ait-Mouh, Kobrehel, and Autran (1989) and includes viscoelasticity along with pasta disintegration or surface condition of the cooked pasta. The type of wheat used will influence the nature of the genetic make up and the proteins available to produce a good quality pasta.

Pasta has typically been made from durum wheat semolina (Mariani-Constantini, 1985). Durum wheat has many advantages over hard red wheat for use in pasta processing. Durum wheat has a better pericarp color, degree of kernel hardness, desired yellow pigmented endosperm, and reduced level of oxidative enzymes as noted by Kim, Seib, Posner, Deyoe, and Yang (1989). The milling product of durum wheat is referred to as semolina, whereas farina represents the milling product of common hard red wheat. Semolina has superior milling yields in comparison to farina as well as a brighter yellow color, increased resilience, and decreased cohesion of the cooked pasta (Kim et al., 1989). An important characteristic of semolina is that the pasta retains its texture after cooking so that the structure is firm and surface disintegration is not a problem (Cubadda, 1989).

These good quality characteristics have been related to the quality of the durum semolina protein. The proteins found in durum wheat fall into four classifications: albumins, which are soluble in water, globulins, found to be soluble in sodium chloride solution, gliadins, soluble in 70-90% alcohol, and

Consumer's perceive good quality pasta as a product with some yellow color, intact and not broken apart, and having some firmness to bite — "al dente". Many factors have been shown to influence perceived quality. Dick and Matsuo (1988) have listed a number of the factors: cooking techniques, cooking time, composition of cooking water, post cooked handling, pH of cooking water, protein to starch ratio, lipid content, drying process, and protein content as well as quality.

Lynne Zonneveld is a fourth year foods and nutrition student at the University of Manitoba. This paper was a result of a seminar presentation and the area of research is of great interest at the University. Lynne has aspirations of graduate research in the field of foods and nutrition.

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Table 1. Gluten characteristics of different cultivars

Cultivar	Gluten elastic recovery (mm)	Gluten firmness (mm)
Allele type 45	1.55	1.92
Allele type 42	0.48	1.45

Adapted from Pogna et al., 1988.

glutenins, which are insoluble in all aforementioned solutions. Of all these proteins, gliadins and glutenins have received the most attention in research on pasta quality. Glutenin-gliadin interactions play an important role in the formation of gluten, which has been shown to be necessary for a good quality pasta (Dick & Matsuo, 1988). Gluten strength is a determinant in pasta quality and it has been corroborated by Dick and Matsuo (1988) and Feillet et al. (1989) that low molecular weight glutenins are essential for good gluten strength and for good gluten viscoelasticity and firmness.

Genetic engineering has made it possible to produce wheats with improved capacity to produce high quality pasta (Pogna, Lafiandra, Feillet, & Autran 1988). Pogna et al. (1988) and Feillet et al. (1989) have identified gliadin proteins that serve as genetic markers for other proteins which produce the characteristics in wheat gluten from which good quality pasta is derived. These proteins are the glutenin proteins and more recently, Feillet et al. (1989) have indicated it is specifically the low molecular weight glutenins (LMWG) involved.

Originally gliadins were considered the causal factor in the production of

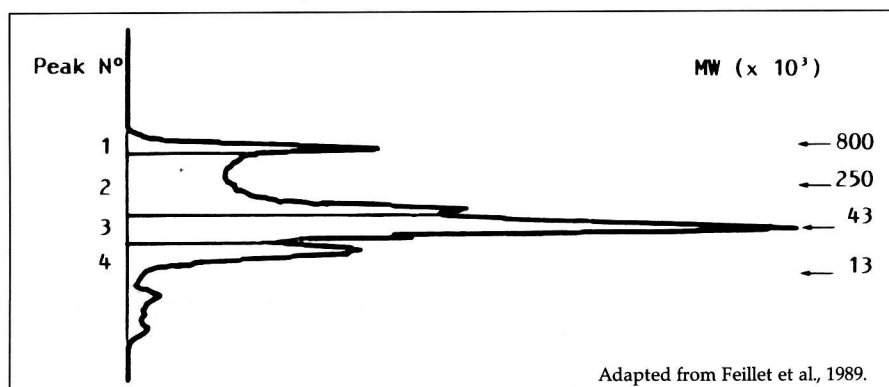


Figure 1. Size-exclusion high-performance liquid chromatography elution curve of sodium dodecyl sulfate-phosphate buffer extract of durum wheat, cultivar Kidur.

high quality pasta, but recent research has shown this no longer holds true. Low molecular weight glutenins (LMWG), a subclass of gluten protein, are subunits of large aggregates with a molecular weight of 12,000-60,000 kilodaltons. The relationship between γ -gliadins and glutenins with respect to cooking quality has been a controversial issue.

Wheat chromosome 1B, as described by Feillet et al. (1989), controls the gliadin molecular structures via a family of closely linked genes referred to as the Gli-B1 locus. Within the class of γ -gliadins are two subclasses denoted as the γ -42 component and the γ -45 component. Feillet et al. (1989) point out that γ -gliadin 45 lines are characterized by good viscoelasticity and firmness while γ -gliadin 42 lines appear to lack these characteristics. However, Pogna et al. (1988) have noted that the Gli-B1 locus codes for both the γ -gliadins and LMWG. The Gli-B1 locus was described by Feillet et

al. (1989) as having only two allelic types. The first type is allele '42' which codes for γ -gliadin 42, α -gliadin 33-35-38 and a LMWG quadruplet group which is referred to as the low-molecular-weight-one (LMW-1) complex. The second type is allele '45', which codes for γ -gliadin 45, α -gliadin 35, and a LMWG triplet which is referred to as low-molecular-weight-two (LWM-2) complex.

Pogna et al. (1988) demonstrated the association between good pasta and genetic makeup as shown in Table 1. Viscoelasticity of gluten and gluten firmness was demonstrated to be much more evident in what is called the type 45 cultivars, which contain the LMW-2 complex.

Originally the gliadin component of LMW-1 and LMW-2 was thought to be the active determinant of good quality pasta, but evidence now points to the LMWG rather than the gliadin as the important factor. Further investigation by Feillet et al. (1989) demonstrated LMWG levels were higher in the type 45 LMW-2 than in the type 42 LMW-1 complex. They also showed that LMWG was the key factor in LMW-2 as shown in Table 2.

Feillet et al. (1989) also used size exclusion high performance liquid chromatography elution curve to separate the proteins of pasta shown in Figure 1. Four peaks were observed of which peaks 1 and 2 are composed of low molecular weight glutenins. Gliadin proteins were seen in peaks 3 and 4. Since high molecular weight (HMW) proteins elute first, this illustrates that the glutenin proteins are higher in molecular weight than gliadin protein. Within glutenin subclass Feillet et al. (1989) has shown it is

Table 2. Protein Composition (%) of Durum Wheat

Component ^a	Cultivar Calvino (γ -42 type)	Cultivar Agathe (γ -45 type)
Total wheat proteins		
Salt-soluble proteins	23.5	19.2
Gliadins	33.4b	22.22c
HMWG subunits	10.2	11.5
LMWG subunits	15.1	27.7
Minor subunits	8.2	10.3
Insoluble	9.6	9.1
Total glutenin		
HMWG subunits	30.5	23.2
LMWG subunits	45.1	56.0
Minor subunits	24.4	20.8

^aHMWG = high molecular weight glutenin; LMWG = low molecular weight glutenin.

^bIncluding -42, 3.9%.

^cIncluding -45, 2.6%.

Adapted from Feillet et al., 1989.

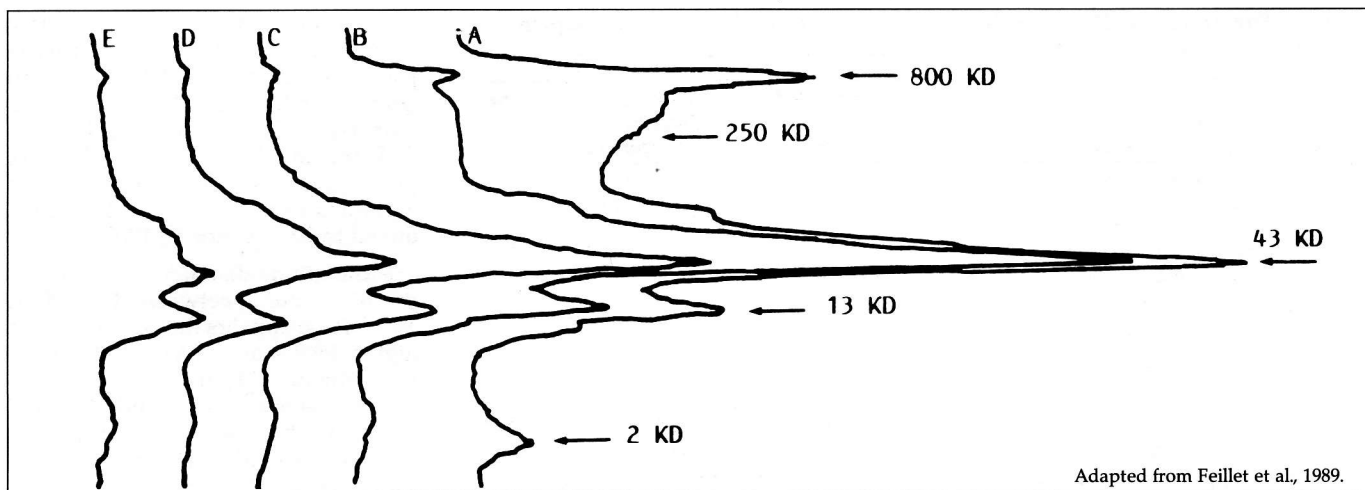


Figure 2. Size-exclusion high-performance liquid chromatography of sodium dodecyl sulfate-phosphate extracts. Semolina (A); pasta dried at 55°C (B); pasta left for 2 hr at 90°C at 13% (C), 18% (D), and 24% (E) moisture content, respectively.

the lower weight glutenins which are the functional proteins in pasta quality. Peaks one and two were further analyzed by Feillet et al. (1989) and it was shown that peaks one and two correlated to firmness with $r = 0.81$ and $r = 0.75$ respectively. As well, elastic recovery correlated to peaks one and two with $r = 0.88$ and $r = 0.82$. These results indicated that low molecular weights glutenins are largely responsible for the firmness and viscoelasticity observed in good quality pasta. The knowledge that the first two peaks represented the functional components led to an investigation into the reaction of the peaks to a heating process, an important factor in pasta processing.

The functional relationship of LMWG to good quality pasta involves the aggregative property. During processing of pasta, drying temperature influences product quality. To investigate the effects of temperature on LMWG, Feillet et al. (1989) subjected pasta to a lower heat, 55°C, than the normal 70°C used in processing. As well, pastas of varying moisture content, 13%, 18%, and 24%, were left for 2 hours at a higher than normal temperature of 90°C corresponding to C, D, E respectively.

As can be seen in Figure 2, heat affected peaks 1 and 2 most dramatically. Figure 2 also demonstrates the effect of temperature/humidity on the protein component of pasta. Peak 3 and 4 are affected by the treatment but not as dramatically as peak 1 and 2. The important implication is the sensitivity

of peaks 1 and 2 to the heat treatment. The peaks are known to contain LMWG (Feillet et al., 1989). These peaks were shown to be highly correlated with viscoelasticity and firmness of cooked pasta. It then follows that the heat-induced aggregation of LMWG is

vital to these two criteria as noted by Feillet et al. (1989).

An additional argument to support the claim that LMWG are the functional components, rather than γ -gliadins, relates to another aspect of aggregative properties of gliadins.

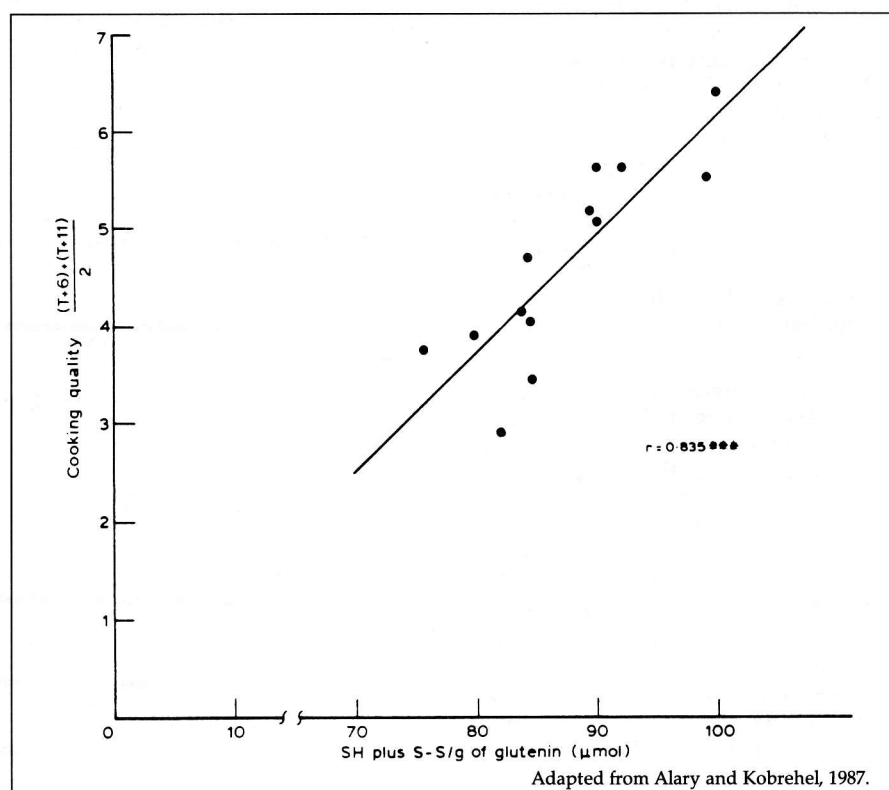


Figure 3. Correlation between the cooking quality (state of surface) of spaghetti and the total -SH plus S-S content in the glutenins.

Table 3. The Total -SH Plus S-S Content in the Glutenin Extracted by Sequential Solubilisation with Acetic Acid Followed by Na Tetradecanoate

Cultivars and locations	Glutenin fractions	Glutenin extracted (% of the total protein content)	Total -SH plus S-S in the glutenin (Mmol g of glutenin)
Mondur	Extracted with acetic acid	13.6	110.8
	Extracted with Na tetradecanoate	15.2	72.5
Kidur	Extracted with acetic acid	19.0	84.2
	Extracted with Na tetradecanoate	14.4	61.0

Adapted from Kobrehel et al., 1988.

According to Feillet et al. (1989), gliadins are very heat resistant and do not have aggregative properties. Pogna et al. (1988) describe gliadins as being non-aggregative with no apparent functionality to pasta. DuCros (1987), Pogna et al. (1988), and Feillet et al. (1989) have all shown that it is the LMWG which is the functional component in producing good quality pasta.

While viscoelasticity appears to be dictated by the LMWG content of the pasta the second criteria, surface quality, appears to be determined by the sulfur content of the glutenin, which also may be linked to the LMWG. Glutenin proteins contain sulfur which has been found to be functionally important in the production of good quality pasta. Feillet et al. (1989) have stated that sulphydryl plus disulfide (SH plus S-S) content of durum wheat is higher in varieties with superior cooking quality, and Alary and Kobrehel (1987) demonstrated a high positive correlation between the SH plus S-S groups in glutenin and the surface-condition of cooked pasta. Higher levels of SH plus S-S content in gluten proteins produce pastas with improved surface quality.

To come to these conclusions, Alary and Kobrehel (1987) determined the SH plus S-S content using a titration method. In using this method the authors were able to determine the SH plus S-S content and relate this content to the quality of the pasta. Their work demonstrated that SH plus S-S content improved the cooking quality of pasta.

On this premise Alary and Kobrehel (1987) collected data which indicated that the total SH plus S-S content in the glutenins was linked to the cooking quality. In Figure 3 the significant correlation between SH plus S-S content of the thirteen sample wheats and cooking quality of the pasta is shown. The relationship took the

authors' conclusion one step further and demonstrated that it was the SH plus S-S content in the glutenin proteins which produced improved cooking quality pasta. Kobrehel et al. (1988) determined the SH plus S-S content using an amperometric technique. Kobrehel, Raymond, and Alary (1988) found that when the level of sodium tetradecanoate, used in the solubilization of glutenin, was increased, two changes occurred. There was an increase of HMW glutenin solubilized and the total SH plus S-S content decreased. Kobrehel et al. (1988) suggested an inverse relationship existed between molecular weight and SH plus S-S levels in glutenin fractions. These results supported the fact that the SH plus S-S

content of LMWG is an important factor in improved cooking quality of pasta. Feillet et al. (1989) stated that after solubilization of durum wheat sulfur-rich glutenin (DSG) with sodium myristate, the solubility profiles indicated that these sulfur rich glutenins were neither disulfide cross-linked to LMWG nor HMWG.

Although no disulfide cross link has yet been found between the LMWG and DSG, it appears that cultivars with higher levels of LMWG also tend to have a higher SH plus S-S content. This can be seen in Alary and Kobrehel (1987) and Kobrehel et al. (1988) with analysis of Mondur, a type 45 line, and Kidur, a type 42 line in Table 3.

The type 45 line which has been shown to improve the cooking quality of pasta corresponds to a higher SH plus S-S content (Table 3). One way in which Feillet et al. (1989) explained this phenomenon was a proposed hydrophobic interaction between durum wheat sulfur-rich glutenins and LMWG Figure 4.

It was further clarified by the authors by looking at acetic acid extraction, which produced higher levels of SH plus S-S, and sodium myristate extraction which resulted in lower levels. Hydrophobic interactions were stable in acetate solution but

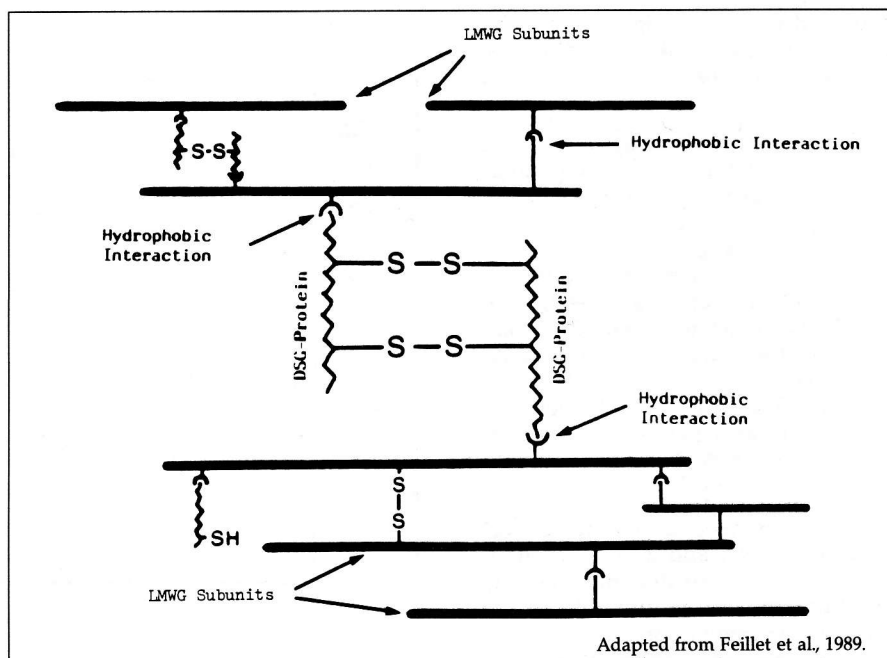


Figure 4. Proposed role of DSG proteins in aggregation of low molecular weight glutenin (after Alary 1988).

not in a sodium myristate solution. Feillet et. al. (1989) proposed that the tight protein network, created by the hydrophobic bonding, was the functional characteristic which prevented the leaching of pasta starch during the cooking process, resulting in reduced surface stickiness.

An Overview

Cooking quality of pasta is a complicated mixture of many factors. There are many criteria on which to evaluate pasta qualities, and no universal method has been devised to analyze these criteria. In a general description proposed by Dexter et al. (1985), pasta should be firm, resilient, and non-sticky. These three criteria are affected primarily by the gluten fraction as stated by Cubadda (1989). The proteins found in gluten are critical to the characteristics of the gluten. Cubadda (1989) states that it is not the quantity but the type of gluten protein present which is important. Where originally it was thought that γ -gliadins were the functional components in wheat, it is now known that these serve primarily as genetic markers (Cubadda, 1989). Glutenin proteins have been shown to be the

influential components producing good pasta quality, and LMWG have been shown by DuCros (1987), Feillet et al. (1989), and Pogna et al. (1988) to be instrumental in producing good gluten viscoelasticity. Aggregation of LMWG upon the introduction of increased temperature contributes to pasta firmness and elastic recoil (Feillet et al. 1989). Research has shown the SH plus S-S content of glutenins found in durum wheat are functional in improving good surface quality of cooked pasta (Alary Kobrehel, 1987). Feillet et al. (1989) proposed that LMWG and DSG interact through hydrophobic bonding.

The genetic basis of the biochemical components of gluten are important in the quality of pasta produced. A good quality pasta is analyzed for its genetic makeup so that in further breeding the best genetic recombination can be obtained.

Despite progress in biochemical and genetic knowledge of durum wheat, scientists have not been yet able to completely resolve or identify all the factors responsible for cooking quality of durum wheat pasta (Cubadda, 1989). □

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Family Violence

Heather Coleman and Grant Charles

Abstract

Family violence is often considered an event that only happens to other people. However, given the current rates of reported incidences of abuse, it must be accepted that it is a widespread problem throughout society. It does exist and is perpetuated against those people who most need protection within the family. It is paradoxical that those who most need the security and safety of the family are most often the victims of violence. This paper provides an overview of current knowledge in the areas of child abuse, wife battering, and elder abuse.

Résumé

La violence dans la famille est souvent considérée comme un événement qui arrive seulement aux autres. Selon les cas rapportés, il semble que le problème est largement répandu dans la société. Le problème existe et il se perpétue chez ceux qui ont besoin de protection au sein de la famille. C'est paradoxal, que dans une famille, ceux, qui ont le plus besoin de sécurité et de protection, sont souvent victimes de violence. Cet article procure une vue d'ensemble des problèmes courants d'abus sexuels auprès des enfants et des adultes et expose le problème des femmes battues.

Heather Coleman, MSW, is a full-time sessional instructor with the Faculty of Social Work at the University of Calgary, Lethbridge Division. Prior to this, she was active in treating victims of child sexual abuse and their families and has published several papers in the area.

Grant Charles, MSW, RSW, is a full-time instructor in the Child and Youth Care Programme at Lethbridge Community College. He has been involved in the area of children and family services for almost two decades in a variety of direct service, supervisory, and educational positions. He is currently active as an educator, trainer, researcher, and practitioner.

Introduction

The proliferation of the child advocacy movement in concert with the impetus of feminism has uncovered family violence as a major social problem. Contrary to popular assumption, family violence is not solely a modern phenomena. "Historical analyses demonstrate that it has long been a characteristic of family life, and has been tolerated and sanctioned by society" (Frankel-Howard, 1989, p. 9). Rather, the issue has eluded scrutiny for centuries due in part to the nature of the family — the family has obscured examination from the outside world with the belief that "a man's home is his castle". Major interventions addressing family violence still struggle with basic value tenets such as the sanctity of the family unit versus the protection of the victim, and the rights of individual family members (in particular the parents) versus the necessity for external government intervention to safeguard the well-being of the more vulnerable members of a family. Idealized and romanticized notions of the family still exist and although the family may be satisfying and harmonious for some, the blunt fact remains that a significant number of people are victimized in the very setting in which they should be able to expect sanctuary.

Heralded by Kempe's "battered baby syndrome" in 1964, family walls have started to become more transparent. Although resisted by proponents of the sanctity of the family, it is known that all forms of family violence do exist to an alarming degree. "You are more likely to be physically assaulted, beaten and killed in your own home at the hands of a loved one than any place else or by anyone else in our society"



(Gelles & Straus, 1988, p. 18). Family violence takes several forms including physical, physical maltreatment of children, wife battering and elder mistreatment. The field is vast in scope and this paper aims to highlight some of the pertinent knowledge in the area.

Until now, family violence has been easier to count than to explain, and it is concurrently viewed as a criminal, social, behavioral, and medical problem (Conte, 1981) and more recently, it has also been seen as a family systems problem. Although prevalence is high enough to be considered a reason for concern, there remains some discrepancy as to exact numbers. Furthermore, given that the area has been excluded from open societal discussion and since family violence is a recent "discovery", definitive answers still beg more questions. Part of the difficulty lies in the fact that "abuse, like 'violence' is a term open to different interpretations" (Frankel-Howard, 1989, p. 12). There has been lack of uniformity in defining what exactly abuse is and, as such, program plans, legislators, front line workers, and the general public are often at odds in determining rights and responsibilities and ultimately intervention strategies.

Although not all social problems need to be understood from multiple perspectives, common themes seem to emerge throughout all forms of abuse. Many argue that the very nature of the

family, such as the intensity and intimacy in the relationships, make it susceptible to conflict. In addition, the demand for privacy has frequently contributed to social isolation on the part of many families (Garbarino, 1987) through which problems frequently escape detection and the influence of social control. While most people in Western society pride themselves on the amount of independence that they have attained, the paradox is that it can create a major obstacle in the identification and resolution of personal problems.

It is no coincidence that the victims of family violence are usually the more vulnerable members of the family system, particularly children and women. "The victims of violence within the home are disproportionately the smaller, the weaker and the less powerful" (Gelles & Straus, 1988, p. 32). This inequality furnishes several rewards for the perpetrators of family violence such as power, control, and self-esteem (Gelles & Straus, 1988). Inevitably then, family violence has become a political issue, and the proclamations of the "personal is political" permeates its analysis. This has led many to assume a socio-political stance in understanding and intervening with families where violence is present. Gelles & Straus (1987) continue by explaining that "... human beings can absorb outrageous violence over long periods of time with barely a whimper and rarely a cry for help" (p. 19). The power inequalities and dependencies in the family often serve to trap victims in a situation particularly when they are as powerless outside the family unit. This philosophy permeates feminist thinking which has contributed much to the understanding of the issues inherent in rectifying the problem.

Furthermore, violence is largely sanctioned in the Western culture. Public heroes such as Sylvester Stallone, Karate Kid, and Mutant Ninja Turtles pervade our consciousness and suggest to us that "might is right". For example, Garbarino (1987) has posited that nonviolent cultures tend to avoid child abuse. Gelles and Straus (1987) and many experts in the field concur that violence and, at the very least, the use of force and misuse of power have become socially accepted ways of problem-solving in Western society today. Increasingly, experts in the area have come to believe that conflict and even violence in the family is a normal

state of affairs. It is the intensity and frequency that varies from one family to another.

It is also significant that the same behaviors that are inflicted on individuals outside the family (and hence regarded as a criminal matter) are often ignored and perhaps even condoned within the family context. For example, historically the "rule of thumb" decreed that a man was permitted to beat his wife with a stick no bigger than the diameter of his finger. Although such attitudes may be deemed archaic now, subtle variations still permeate current thinking. Some judicial rulings, such as the recent outrage surrounding a judge purporting that a woman needs to be slapped once in awhile, have been widely disparaged. Additionally, there is much disagreement as to the amount of physical discipline that can be wielded against a child in the course of normal parenting. Some forms of discipline may in fact be considered abusive and parental rights groups decry the right for the government to intercede in family affairs. In contrast, some countries have championed the rights of children by proscribing spankings. As Bolton & Bolton (1987) explain, "behaviour standards seem to be differentially applied in the family" (p. 25). While one waits for more sophisticated and comprehensive answers to understanding family violence, political battles continue to be waged.

In most cases of family violence, there are several contentious and frequently opposing beliefs about the origin of family violence. Psychopathology is one of the earliest theories that arose to explain the reasons for family violence. However, in all but a few cases mental illness is considered not to be a causal factor. Furthermore, alcohol abuse has frequently been singled out as a causal element, but the fact remains that this, too, is a deficient reason for violence and may point to the fact then that there are two problem behaviors evident and not just one.

On the other end of the spectrum are those who believe that the crux of the violent behavior lies within the family and the sets of relationships within that unit itself. Although this theory is complex, inherent in it is the belief that relationships are created and maintained by a series of circular interactions and that, as such, all family members are responsible for the

creation and the maintenance of the problem.

Rather than explain family violence from a single static perspective, it is preferable to examine the problem along several coexisting dimensions known as person-in-environment. From this perspective the traits and coping skills of individuals are juxtaposed against the resources or impediments posed by the immediate environments as well as the cultural/political characteristics of larger society. When described in this fashion, the propensity for family violence is conceptualized as a form of linear equation. When one side of the equation is burdened or imbalanced, the propensity for violence becomes stronger. Simplistically stated, a person with inferior coping skills may be unlikely to be abusive so long as that person exists in a strongly supportive environment. Conversely, someone with a healthy set of coping skills may become overwhelmed by extremely stressful life events such as death of a loved one, unemployment, or bankruptcy. Otherwise known as the "diathesis-stress continuum," these "child maltreatment researchers" view the family in terms of "challenges" (problem areas) and "buffers" (compensating mechanism) (Bolton & Bolton, 1987, p. 31). The merit of this approach is that family violence is viewed as the interplay between several factors; it is never static and can be adapted to the individual nature of each problem. However, this framework does not suggest that one issue or one problem is responsible for all the occurrences of family violence that exists and in this sense it becomes a flexible and dynamic perspective that can be adapted to fit different contexts. Yet, for those seeking the answer it may be frustrating.

Child Abuse

Child maltreatment is an indicator of overall quality of life for families and is concentrated among people who have the least going for them economically, socially, and psychologically, and who thus comprise high risk families (Garbarino & Gilliam, 1980). The field of child maltreatment is a new and emerging field, and it has only been since Kempe's landmark paper on the "Battered Baby Syndrome" in 1964 that it has received the recognition it deserves. It includes physical and sexual abuse. As such, a comprehensive definition has been hard to come

by. In fact, most definitions of child abuse are so broad that it is doubtful that any but the most obvious cases will receive official attention. Although some believe that child abuse is largely confined to the lower class, others suggest that the poor are more likely to be identified by officials and, therefore, more likely to be "caught". Although there may be some validity to this tenet, the fact remains that living in poverty is a major life stressor that depletes the coping resources of the family and distances members from valuable community resources. In fact, Garbarino (1987) believes that lack of social support creates an excessively high degree of risk to children and their families, and this may be a strong precursor to child maltreatment. It is, however, important to recognize that child abuse occurs in all types of socioeconomic environments.

There are points of divergence inherent in arriving at a definition of child maltreatment and, in fact, Gelles and Straus (1987) found that 70% of people in one study thought that slapping a twelve-year-old child was either necessary or "good" and infer that the absence of physical punishment is in itself deviant. In synthesizing many current definitions of child maltreatment, Garbarino (1987) has posited it as "... acts of ... commission be it by a parent or a guardian that are judged by a mixture of community values and professional expertise to be inappropriate and damaging" (p. 7). This definition is still quite broad and, therefore, is open to a range of interpretations.

The depiction of child abuse conjures up images of dead or severely beaten children, and yet the fact remains that a comprehensive understanding of child abuse includes a complete spectrum of behavior frequently with little tell-tale signs such as bruises or broken bones. At a time when definitions of abuse are expanding, it is ironic that funding to intervention services have been cut back, often drastically and only the serious cases are heeded (Charles and Gabor, 1988). The result is an increased level of community awareness with an unfortunately corresponding decrease in the ability of agencies to deal with the aftermath of disclosure and discovery.

The true incidence of the physical abuse of children lies buried beneath problems of definition and discerning between reported cases and real cases. There has been an increase in reported

cases, and this probably stems from mandatory reporting laws that are inscribed in provincial child welfare statutes throughout the country. As a matter of fact, Gelles & Straus (1987) postulate that incidents of child maltreatment have actually decreased in number due to improved child welfare services, and that the increase in reported numbers is actually the outcome of mandatory reporting as well as greater social awareness of the problem. Yet, Garbarino & Gilliam (1987) suggest that "... 25% of America's families are in danger of being prone to abusing because of sufficient conditions that include child-rearing ignorance, unrealistic expectations concerning children, propensity towards violence, psychopathology, or presence of a special child" (p. 31). The problem continues despite the improvement in reporting. In fact, many confuse the improvement in the rate of reporting with an actual improvement in the quality of intervention. Nothing can be further from the truth.

Although any child may be at risk for physical abuse, some researchers have recognized children with special needs as being particularly vulnerable to being abused. These children may be unwanted (Robert, Lynch & Golding, cited in Roberts, 1988), premature, or otherwise handicapped (Roberts, 1988), or born before the parents were prepared for them (Lynch & Roberts, cited in Roberts, 1988). Gil (1970) was one of the first to report that the abuse victim may have characteristics that have a negative connotation to the maltreating parent. This is not to infer that victims of child abuse are responsible for their own abuse, but rather the special attributes of the children may "push the buttons" of the perpetrator. Over one-half of the victims are male, and young males are particularly vulnerable to becoming victims of physical abuse (Gil, 1970), especially in single parent homes (Garbarino, 1980). Illegitimacy rates are four times the average in abusive homes (Browne & Saqi, 1988). There is also some suggestion that children who are abused are at higher risk to abuse their own children (Justice & Justice, 1976) although this notion has been challenged especially as an absolute predictor of future abusiveness.

Most demographic studies concur that males and females abuse their children about equally (Van Stolk, cited in Guberman, 1985) whereas male

children were slightly more liable than females to be abused by their mothers (Gelles, 1979). Gelles (1985) and Hartman (1987) suggest that mothers experience greater vulnerability to maltreat their children because they are around them for greater periods of time. Hartman (1987) hypothesizes that the incidence of abuse in proportion to the time spent in child care is much less for women than men, and recent studies connect paternal unemployment to child abuse (Frankel-Howard, 1989, p. 23).

Although fathers are more liable to abuse their children in intact families and the injuries are usually more serious (Gil, cited in Biller & Solomon, 1986), more mothers are disproportionately represented in the literature when they are the head of single-parent families (Biller & Solomon, 1986; Gil, 1970; Justice & Justice, 1976; Friedman, 1976). Rates of abuse in single parent families range anywhere from 18.9% of child welfare caseloads to 40% (Benedict, White & Cornely, 1985).

Wife Abuse

This is one of the most politicized issues in the whole field of family violence as can be seen in the terminology used to label it "domestic violence", "spousal assault", or "wife assault", among others. Although assaults do happen to men, the fact remains that the victim is almost always a woman (Frankel-Howard, 1989, p. 57). Although Gelles and Straus did discover a high rate of woman-to-man violence, they also unearthed a different context in which this happens. Most of the violence directed at the male partners in a conjugal relationship was in self-defense — that is, the women were protecting themselves from being assaulted (Straus and Gelles, 1987), whereas for man-to-woman violence there were different reasons for and certainly a different outcome of the violence. Martin (1983) suggests that the men cite several factors that may be implicated in the development of abusive behavior including being battered as a child, and responding to stress in one's personal life or threats to one's identity. Societal acceptance, either overtly or through submission, also contributes to the development of abusive behavior.

Conservative estimates place the rate of wife abuse in Canada at one in ten (Frankel-Howard, 1989, p. 57); these figures are considered conserva-

tive since they are drawn from the combined populations of women in shelters and those with physical cruelty cited as the reason for divorce. Unfortunately, there are many women suffering in silence because of shame, a sense of responsibility for the situation, and because the violence takes place behind the family walls that are impenetrable at times. Frequently, when these women do seek out help from agencies or family doctors, the problem is masked behind depression or psychosomatic ailments, and the problem is misdiagnosed or labelled as the problem of the woman. Even when the problem is recognized for what it is, the blame is still often placed upon the woman. The attitude prevails that if only the victim was a better wife, the man would not abuse her. This is another example of the victim being held at fault for the crime. As usual, this type of perverted logic often only occurs when dealing with crimes perpetrated against women and children.

Again, this form of family violence defies explication by one factor alone. The reasons why wife assault exists are wide and varied. Earlier explanations have settled on theories of victim precipitation, particularly those that sought to understand the situation by suggesting that the victim in some way provoked her own abuse either from nagging or from some forms of disobedience. These beliefs tended to be reinforced since it was often the victims who sought treatment, and they tended to be suffering the aftereffects of the battering incident. Witnessing the condition these women were in has led some authors to conclude that they somehow provoked their abuse. What in fact the researchers were observing was the post traumatic stress syndrome. By the time the police or therapists arrived on the scene, the man is frequently in a calm state (since his tension has discharged) whereas the woman may be hysterical (since she just experienced a major trauma).

Walker (1979) has developed the theory of the battering cycle whereby the battering becomes a repetitive pattern throughout the span of the relationship and serves to keep the relationship going. Through each cycle, the woman becomes further entrenched in a hopeless situation. The cycle consists of three phases including the tension-building phase, the battering incident, and the honey-

moon phase. During the tension-building phase, the woman is concerned about the possibility of a beating in the future, and she makes attempts to appease the man through overly compliant behavior. Seldom does the woman ascribe responsibility for the abuse to her husband, but rather she sees events external to the relationship or something she has done herself as being responsible. However, it is critical to recognize that the abuse is in no way triggered by the behavior of the victim. The responsibility for the violence lies solely with the aggressor. As such, there is little that the woman can do to avert the violence, and eventually the tension culminates into an actual incident where she is beaten. The severity of this varies from one incident to another. This phase is "characterized by the uncontrollable discharge of the tensions that have built up during phase one" (Walker, 1979, p. 59). In spite of beliefs to the contrary, there is little the woman can do to avoid or stop the battering once it has happened apart from seeking safety. After the attack, she is in a state of disbelief and may even experience "emotional collapse" (Walker, 1979, p. 63) following the incident. For example, Walker found that only 10% ever called the police following a battering incident. The last phase is characterized by a calmness — the tension has dissipated and instead the man is often contrite and loving. He may promise never to beat her again and often the woman believes him, particularly when she has been battered only a couple of times previously.

In an ongoing process, the woman ultimately feels powerless to change the situation or to leave, particularly after several repetitions of the cycle. The classic question emerges as to why she refuses to press charges. Although there are yet no unequivocal answers to this question, several issues are readily apparent. Firstly, women are raised to believe that the family and its relationships are primarily a woman's domain and, when there is failure here, then it must be her fault. The ongoing sense of failure and the ensuing shame create for the woman intense insecurity and a poor self concept which is reinforced further the longer she remains in the destructive relationship and the repetition of the battering cycle. Originally labelled as a sado-masochistic personality (i.e. enjoying pain and discomfort), we have deve-

loped more sophistication in our understanding of these women. In many ways these women are similar to those who have undergone the "Stockholm Syndrome" whereby a hostage develops sympathy for the hostage-takers. It is often easier to psychologically submit to the abuser than to fight back.

Part of the responsibility for the tendency of the victim to remain in an abusive environment must also be with the societal response to battering. There is a tendency for some people in the helping profession as well as their counterparts in law enforcement agencies to minimize domestic abuse. Actions that would clearly be seen as acts of violence if perpetrated against a stranger are often seen as being an acceptable or at least a normal occurrence within a family. Somehow through this process, violence is rationalized as an expected or at least not unusual interaction within the family. The result is that even if the victim requests protection or assistance, it may be denied to her. It is difficult for people in our society to ask for help. If it is not given when requested, the victim may not ask again. As such, this minimalization and rationalization breeds further violence.

Elder Abuse

Elder abuse has been the last form of family violence to be studied, and that in conjunction with the fact that there is no mandatory reporting for elder abuse, has led to a lot of obscurity over the extent of the problem. There is also some suggestion that with elder abuse along with the other forms of family violence, the reported cases are only the "tip of the iceberg". Although figures of elder abuse are currently unclear, one estimate is that anywhere between 2.5 and 3.9 per cent of the elderly population is abused (Pillemer & Finkelhor, 1986).

Elder abuse entails all of the aforementioned forms of abuse in addition to financial exploitation of the older person which may be the most common. Breckman and Adelman (1988) see elder mistreatment as the "intentional physical, financial, and psychological abuse and neglect of individuals 60 years of age and older by family members . . ." (p. 9).

Most of the victims of elder maltreatment are females over the age of 70 (Frankel-Howard, 1989, p. 101) who live with the perpetrator at the time of

the abuse. There is little agreement on who the perpetrators of elder abuse actually are, but it is generally believed that the children of the victims are at a higher risk. However, there is much controversy as to whether the most likely is the son or the daughter to abuse the senior, and other studies suggest that husbands are equally as liable to be the perpetrator. Breckman and Adelman (1988) suggest that unlike other perpetrators of family violence, those who mistreat their elders are more likely to suffer from mental illness or alcohol abuse. There is also some proposition that the abusers were themselves victims of mistreatment when they were younger, although this certainly has not yet been substantiated in the literature (Breckman & Adelman, 1988).

As with other forms of family violence, there is little definitive understanding of the causes of elder abuse, but stress has been cited as the "straw that broke the camel's back". What is often seen is the infirmed elder, either mentally or physically, who lives with one of their children and who puts a strain on family resources. The family may lack social resources both financial or otherwise and have little respite from the burden of care. There is some suggestion that the family is dependent upon the elder's

financial resources, and this causes the family to keep the older person in the family unit in spite of the burdens of care placed upon them (Pillemer, 1986). To some extent the senior has little recourse but to remain in the situation, particularly in light of the dependency on the family to get basic physical needs met. Another crucial risk factor is the presence of social isolation which is cited throughout the literature on family violence. Breckman and Adelman (1988), which is corroborated by other research, suggest that social isolation on the part of the victim creates a greater risk for abuse.

Conclusion

Clearly all forms of family violence are widespread in our society today. Although it has been a major breakthrough to acknowledge its existence, there is still much ground to cover. It is probably too much to expect that there will be single issues accountable for all forms or even individual instances of family violence. However, it is becoming apparent that we need to go beyond individual explanations of the problem and look to the family and the larger social values and institutions for a broader perspective. Without such an approach, it is certain that we will only be slapping band-aids on the problems rather than looking for long-term, wide-ranging solutions. □

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We are Tomorrow's Past

Jean DeBoo-Jones

We are Tomorrow's Past is the title of a document which chronicles the history of the Canadian Home Economics Association (CHEA) and marks the occasion of its 50th anniversary. It has been written by members of the home economics profession and makes interesting and fascinating reading.

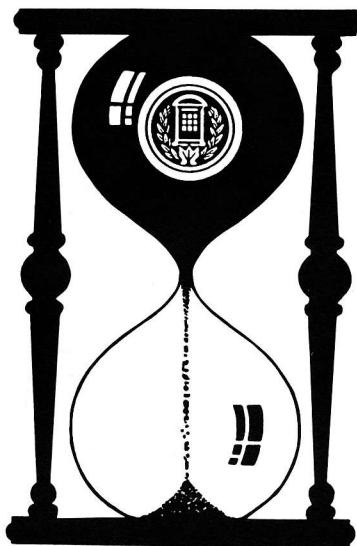
The Association was fortunate to obtain sponsorship from many organisations, and this has enabled it to produce a comprehensive record which will be a valuable addition to its archives. Generously illustrated with appropriate photographs, studded with reflections on the past and snippets and advertisements from old publications, it provides an account of the development and progress of the association since its inauguration in 1939.

On reading, the similarity between our two organisations is apparent, the struggle for identity and image, and the quest to make known the role of home economists and the skills they bring, being common. They too have a Newsletter, keeping the membership

Jean DeBoo-Jones is Chairman of the Institute of Home Economics, Head of Consumer Studies at Birmingham College of Food, Tourism and Creative Studies and Senior Lecturer in Food Studies to the BTEC HND in Home Economics/Food and Consumer Studies course.

Having spent her working life in education, and lecturing on Home Economics vocational courses, she considers herself a link between education and industry, and a representative of the students, who are the future of the Institute. She firmly believes that the more one puts into anything, the more one is likely to get out of it, and feels that we should be positive and enthusiastic in our approach to the professional organisation.

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informed, and a journal which reflects their professionalism. Incorporation and constitution are detailed and these have been revised as needed, as has the administrative structure and the search for representation at national level.

A difference is that Presidents are practising home economists and several profiles are included. It is interesting to note that they all have first degrees and some have higher ones too. Of course, degrees in the discipline are more established in Canada than in Britain.

The Association has a crest, chain of office and ring. Pictures of these appear and there is an explanation of what they represent. These can be equated to our own Coat of Arms which is now in our possession.

The size of the association has seen a steady growth, although there have been some setbacks. There are pres-

ently 1318 members with the subscription being \$140. In 1948 it was agreed that qualification for membership should be a degree with a major in a related field, plus satisfactory evidence of further training or experience. Various categories of membership include honorary and associate; reserve and student membership were introduced in 1974 and affiliate in 1985. Life membership was eliminated in 1987-88 because the income did not cover the cost of servicing. The challenge remains, as with us, how to increase membership. As early as 1946 it was recognised that the organisation should mean so much to those in the profession that every home economist would want to belong.

It is notable that an organisation with a smaller membership than ourselves supports an impressive range of work. From its inception, various committees evolved, thirteen being originally formed and these have now increased to 21, dealing with such aspects as food and nutrition, youth training, textiles, journalism (now the editorial committee for the journal), and publications, which annually reviews all CHEA publications to ensure maintenance of aims. New committees have been and are formed as required, such as public relations, housing, family and human development, professional progress and awards.

An especially interesting feature is the professional practice committees, specific groups within CHEA, which help each other and benefit from networking. *Home Economists in Business* meets the particular issue of working for competitive organisations, yet feels no conflict of interests and manages to share ideas without

divulging trade secrets. *Home Economists in Government* encompasses rural life and agriculture, and its work has extended to include the new dimensions of consumer affairs, health and welfare, where their flexibility and background enable them to fit in to a variety of government situations. These home economists assist in fostering leadership skills in rural women and girls, promoting the conservation of community resources and goodwill. *Home Economists in Education* was first formed to improve training. As early as 1950, home economics was identified as a progressive career and it was recommended that universities placed more stress on the preparation of graduates for a professional career. The 1960s and 70s saw an emphasis on consumer awareness, the 70s graduate study, and the 80s concern over the tendency to suppress home economics in schools. *Home Economists in Education* confirmed support for home economics/family studies as an essential course in the basic education of Canadian students.

The strength and history of the CHEA is confirmed by the fact that thirty years ago there was paid assistance for the treasurer and this was introduced for the President in 1980. A national office was opened in 1960, and six years later it was necessary to move to new premises to accommodate growing requirements. The early 80s saw the installation of modern equipment for word processing and data, and two years ago the office was computerised. The workload supported a general secretary from 1961, and 23 years later this had increased to three full-time staff with part-time support. However, the financial restrictions of 1986 reduced this to one administrative secretary with part-time support.

The Association gives awards and scholarships, and there are two honorary awards, one for distinguished individuals who have made a noteworthy contribution to the organisation or profession but who are not eligible for membership, and the other for members, similar to Fellowship of the Institute.

Awards encompass a range, including one year's free membership given to outstanding students at the end of their final year of training to encourage membership. One is given at each

university, several universities also funding extra awards. A member's bequest in 1978 has developed into two annual honours, and a new prize, valued at \$4,000, has been introduced commemorating the 50th anniversary of CHEA in 1989. Other organisations and companies offer rewards, and the CHEA Awards Committee is available to industry to help select winners.

The CHEA Foundation was established to support research and public service projects, and serves to develop a closer link between home economics and consumers, promoting home economists as helping professionals. A yearly appeal produces patrons, memorial gifts and donations which are used to fund various projects, which enable progress in meeting goals and bestow benefits all round.

Data synopsis

As with the Institute, the CHEA has links with associated organisations with whom it works, and connections with many other provincial and regional professional associations across the country which form the affiliated groups of CHEA. A data synopsis details their programmes and activities which are broad in scope, offering professional updating and networking. Many cover huge geographical areas so members travel long distances to attend meetings and functions. Additionally, they have small membership, some even having separate groups or chapters, making the participation of each individual crucial.

An important aspect of any professional body is its conventions or conferences, valuable for the contacts made and group discussions besides the programme of business. Early subjects emphasised home economists getting to know each other and the sharing of information, the focus then turning on the Association. The 60s saw an interest in the home and family, the 70s coping with change and future planning, and the 80s becoming introspective and concerned with professionalism. Pre- and post-conference workshops provide a forum for professional exchange.

An International Development Programme is available where home economics affiliates work with home economics associates abroad. Joint projects aim to improve the quality of life for individuals and families in the developing world and to facilitate their

greater control over their future. This has been so successful that a Programme Administrator was needed and in 1983 an International Development Officer was appointed. The dissemination of information and educating Canadian home economists about specific topics pertaining to this work elsewhere is through annual workshops and development education events throughout the year.

In retrospect, the Canadian Home Economics Association had its formative years in the 40s, branching out in the next ten years. The 60s saw a widening of horizons followed by the challenge of changing roles in the 70s. The last decade has seen progress in the shaping of public policy, yet still there is concern about image and identity.

In 1986, the USA designated 'Certified Home Economist', where applicants must pass a qualifying examination and fulfil continuing education and professional development objectives in order to maintain certification. In Canada, the current move towards the registration of the profession will help to raise public awareness and make employers more aware of risks in having unqualified staff, as well as highlighting the academic basis of training and the contribution made by home economists to society. In a female-dominated profession, home economics is evolving and developing an identity which is changing and modern, mixing existing customs with fresh interpretations. It is felt that it is up to individual professional home economists to specify their role and get their message across clearly, rather than allow others to do it.

We are Tomorrow's Past has proved to be a rewarding read, full of much that is of interest with regard to the development of a professional organisation and its activities. It is comforting to know that our colleagues elsewhere suffer the same doubts and misgivings, yet also inspiring to see what can be achieved. Considering that the CHEA has fewer members than we do, and have to organise over a much larger geographical area, it is a credit to the obvious enthusiasm of its members who maintain so much activity. The CHEA has shown what can be achieved by individual commitment and we could do much good by taking stick of their example and adopting some of these excellent approaches to our own situation. □

Couple Resource Patterns and Coping during the Adolescent Stage of the Family Cycle

Darlene Davidson and Dianne K. Kieren

Abstract

Consistency or agreement among family members has been alluded to as being important in helping families deal effectively with the events they encounter. The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of family consistency in selected resources and the relationship between the identified resource patterns and coping. The study utilized secondary analysis of a data set from a national random sample of families in the United States (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen & Wilson, 1983). The results indicated that four patterns emerged, with all four patterns well represented. The majority of couples were located in the resource consistent categories (both members having scores which fall into the same range). Findings of the ANOVA tests indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the mean coping scores of different resource groups on three of the five couple resources investigated. Couples in the consistent-high groups had higher coping scores.

Résumé

L'accord parmi les membres de la famille est souvent une illusion bien qu'il soit important de s'aider et de partager les problèmes qui se présentent. Le but de cette étude fut d'analyser la nature de l'accord dans la famille et la relation qui existe entre ses membres lors du choix des ressources parmi les modèles identifiés. L'étude comprend une analyse de données provenant d'un échantillon de familles américaines choisies au hasard. (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen et Wilson en 1983). Les résultats ont indiqué que quatre modèles sont ressortis avec une bonne représentation des quatre modèles. La majorité des couples se situaient dans les catégories de ressources compatibles. (Chacun des deux membres du couple avait des scores identiques.) Les résultats des tests ANOVA ont indiqué qu'il y avait une différence statistique significative entre la moyenne arithmétique des scores des trois des cinq couples dont les ressources étaient différentes. Les couples des groupes plus homogènes ont obtenu de meilleurs scores.

The adolescent stage of the family life cycle has been found to be one of the most stressful stages families encounter (Grady, Gersick, & Boratynski, 1985; Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen, & Wilson, 1983; Robertson & Simons, 1989). All families meet with many new and different challenges which may result in the family experiencing stress. During this stage, the family undergoes many developmental changes for parents, children, and the entire family unit. Concurrently during this stage, the family experiences events associated

with the adolescent's desire for increased independence from the family, the parent's own resolution of midlife issues, the stresses associated with relating to aging parents and grandparents, and issues relating to factors that have an impact upon the marital relationship (Hamburg, 1974; McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988; Rapoport, Rapoport, & Strelitz, 1977). Further stress may be experienced by families due to the lack of agreement between family members in the way they perceive family issues and dynamics (Anderson, 1988; Berry & Williams, 1987; Davis, 1940; Meyer, 1987; Olson et al., 1983; Stoneman, Brady, & Burke, 1989).

Research reveals that families vary in their ability to manage the stressful events which they encounter. Some families are capable of managing stressors well and are challenged by the opportunity. Other families lack this ability and are only capable of maintaining stability. Still others are

overwhelmed and experience crisis and possible dissolution. Understanding the family's response to stressful events has been the focus of much research. Family resources, and coping, have repeatedly been mentioned as being important in the differential management of stress.

The concept of coping has been investigated by researchers from a variety of disciplines in order to understand how individuals and families deal with daily hassles as well as problems of greater magnitude. Coping is a rather broad term which has been used in a variety of ways, frequently relying on the context to make the meaning clear (Lazarus, Averill, & Upton, 1974). Olson and associates (1983) define family coping as a "process of achieving a balance in the family system that facilitates organization and unity and promotes growth and development" (p. 139). Coping then is what individuals and/or families do. Research suggests that

Darlene Davidson, RN, MSc is Assistant Professor in the Faculty of Nursing, University of Alberta and **Dianne K. Kieren**, PhD is a Professor in the Department of Family Studies, University of Alberta.

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coping is a complex process which develops and changes over the individual's and family's life cycle (Antonovsky, 1979; Boss, 1989; Hill, 1958; Olson et al., 1983; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Some insights about coping have been revealed by this work: 1) Coping requires the active participation of the individuals and the family members in dealing with the demands and challenges they encounter; 2) numerous strategies are utilized; 3) a combination of strategies may be better than one; and 4) some may be more effective than others in coping with stress (Boss, 1980, 1989; Cleveland, 1980; McCubbin, Dahl, Lester, Benson, & Robertson, 1976; McCubbin, Needle, & Wilson, 1985; Olson et al., 1983; Tanner-Nelson & Banonis, 1981; Ventura & Boss, 1983).

Family stress theory and research, as well as the literature about healthy families, suggest the importance of marital and family strengths or resources in the process of coping with stressors (Hill, 1958; Olson et al., 1983; McCubbin & Patterson, 1983). Hill (1958) for example described family resources as a key variable in families' efforts to cope with stress. McCubbin and Patterson's (1983) Double ABCX model, which builds on Hill's work, identifies resources as critical factors in the stress and coping process.

Olson et al. (1983) describe family resources as those marital and family strengths which contribute to family unity and the promotion of growth and development. This implies that resources may serve two different roles for families. One is that of buffering or protecting families from the potentially stressful demands of family life; the other is facilitating family adjustment and adaptation to family life changes. The key resources which are beneficial to families may vary over the family life cycle (Olson et al., 1983).

A review of the literature suggests that the quality, quantity, and availability of resources assist families in adjusting to stressful life events. However, these factors alone are not of sufficient power to explain differences

between families and their ability to deal with stressful events (Hansen & Johnson, 1979).

The majority of the research which has investigated family stress, resources, and coping has generally obtained information from only one family member, usually the wife. The data obtained, however, have been utilized as representative of other family members' perceptions of the total family unit. Thus far, a detailed examination of relative levels of resources of spouses and how these couple resource patterns may be related to the ability to cope with stress have not been documented.

Investigating couple resource patterns provides the opportunity to classify and describe the spousal subsystem and to distinguish and describe differences between various spousal subsystems. For example, a look at each spouse's level of resources provides the opportunity to determine both the individual level of resources and how that individual's quality and quantity of resources is represented in the spousal subsystem's resource pool. Couples in which both spouses perceive the level of a particular resource as high would potentially have a larger resource pool than either couples in which *both* spouses perceived the resource to be at a low level or couples in which *one* spouse perceived the resource to be *high* and the other spouse perceived the resource to be *low*. The couples in the two latter categories would have more limited resource pools. Further, it might be proposed that larger resource pools are associated with increased ability to cope better with stressors.

This paper poses the question, how are resource patterns for couples in the adolescent stage of the life cycle related to coping? The purpose of this paper is two fold: 1) to describe the resource patterns for the sample of couples studied, and 2) to investigate the relationship between the identified resource patterns and coping.

Methods

The study was a secondary analysis of a data set from a national stratified random sample of families in the United States. The original study was conducted by Olson, McCubbin and associates (1983).¹ The focus of their study was to provide information about healthy families, that is, the stress they encounter and how they

deal with stress and to determine the type of resources and support systems that families utilize and need (Olson et al., 1983). Data collection was by questionnaire.

In the original study, family resources were viewed as a variety of marital and family strengths. Strengths were defined as a "smaller constellation of attributes encompassed in the larger term resources" (Olson et al., 1983, p. 95). The findings indicated that essential resources for families in the adolescent stage of the family life cycle were: financial management, resolved personality issues, a supportive network of family and friends, and a positive appraisal of their marital relationship, sexual relationship, and quality of life (Olson et al., 1983).

A subsample of the total data set was used in the secondary analysis. It consisted of couples at the adolescent stage of the family life cycle. In order for the couple to qualify for inclusion in the analysis, the following criteria were utilized: family membership of husband and an adolescent between the age of 13 to 18. In addition, both spouses must have fully completed the appropriate measures of each resource investigated.

The study sample consisted of 201 couples (husbands and wives)² who resided in a variety of settings. The largest group (25%) lived in metropolitan areas exceeding a population of 100,000. The remainder of the couples lived in large towns (18%), rural areas (14%), and on farms (13%). The subjects ranged in age from 31 to 57 years, with a mean age of 41 years. The majority of the couples were in their first marriage and had been married an average of 19 years, the range being 5 to 39 years. Less than 10% reported having been married previously. Thirty-two percent of the husbands reported having completed four or more years of college and only 3% had less than a high school diploma. Their most frequently cited occupation was a professional position (doctor, lawyer, manager, teacher) and their major employment status was full-time employment (73%), followed by a combination of full-time and part-time employment (12%).

Nineteen percent of the wives reported having completed four or more years of college, with only 2% having less than a high school diploma. The wives reported working in a variety of occupations, the three primary ones being homemaking

¹A complete description of the methodology and results of the original study is reported in Olson et al., 1983.

²The sample size differed from the total couples at the adolescent stage included in Olson and Associates' Study as only complete data were utilized in the current analysis.

(35%), other professions — managers, teachers, nurses (22%), and sales, technical, and clerical occupations (17%).

The modal income for couples was between \$20,000 to \$29,000. Twenty-nine percent achieved this level. The next largest category was \$30,000 to \$39,000. Seventeen percent of the sample achieved this level.

Selection and measurement of variables. Couple Resource Patterns, the independent variable in this analysis, are defined as the configurations that emerge between husbands' and wives' individual assessments of a specific resource. Within this study, the resources studied are selected personal, marital, and family strengths which have been identified in the original study as crucial ones during the adolescent stage.

Based on the findings of the original study (Olson et al., 1983), the key marital resources deemed beneficial to families during this stage were selected. The five resources chosen were: marital satisfaction, satisfaction with sexual relationship, satisfaction with the personality and behavior of spouse, satisfaction with financial management, and satisfaction with family and friends. All were measured by subscales from the ENRICH instrument developed by Olson, Fournier, and Druckman (1982). The ENRICH total scale alpha reliability averaged .74. The alpha reliability for each subscale was: marital satisfaction .81; personality issues .73; financial management .74; family and friends .72; and sexual relationships .48 (Olson et al., 1983). Test-retest reliabilities for the subscales ranged from .77 to .92 with the average being .87 (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxan, & Wilson, 1982). While the alpha reliability for the sexual relationship scale was relatively low, it was decided to use it, as developed, in order to aid comparability with the Olson data. Olson argues that because the ENRICH instrument was designed to determine general comparability between couples, these reliabilities meet minimum standards. He does caution that they are not high enough to determine, without obtaining other sources of information, whether couples should be required to seek counselling based on the results.

To determine the couple resource patterns, frequency distributions describing the scores achieved by all

husbands and all wives on each resource were reviewed. The analysis of the frequency distributions indicated that on all the resources the mean and median were similar. As a result, the mean score on the subscale was utilized as the cutting point for coding the husband's and wife's score as high or low. Husband's and wife's scores were used to arrive at the couple's resource pattern. Four couple resource patterns were determined: 1) *resource consistent low* (both spouses' scores were low); 2) *resource consistent high* (both spouses' scores were high); 3) *resource inconsistent — husband high* (husband's score was high and wife's score was low); and 4) *resource inconsistent — wife high* (wife's score was high and husband's score was low).

The dependent variable, couple coping, was measured by the F-COPES scale developed by McCubbin, Larsen, and Olson (1982). The alpha reliability for the overall scale is .86. Couple mean and discrepancy scores were used to analyze the data at the couple level.

As yet, no ideal method has been developed to handle measurement of variables at the couple or family level, although discussions and suggestions abound (Glenn & Weaver, 1981.; Olson et al., 1983; Thomson & Williams, 1982; Tiggle, Peters, Kelley, & Vincent, 1982). Each method has its own limitations, particularly when measures do not include observations of actual interaction. Two frequently suggested methods of achieving couple levels of analyses are mean scores and discrepancy scores.

Couple mean scores and couple discrepancy scores were utilized in the current analysis. A couple mean score summarizes the characteristics of the couple, and as a result this score provides a "location for the couple on the scale" (Olson et al., 1983, p. 272). The advantage is the ease of calculation. The major disadvantage with using the mean score is that it masks individual differences and is affected by extreme scores. This will not be a concern if the scores of each spouse are similar; if the scores are widely discrepant, an accurate representation of the couple may not be achieved by using the mean.

The couple discrepancy score represents the amount of difference that exists between the scores of the spouses, and thus measures the amount of intercouples agreement (Olson et al., 1983). The major advantage

of the discrepancy score is that it focusses on the differences between the spouses. The disadvantage with discrepancy scores is that they do not provide a location on a scale.

Olson and associates (1983) suggest that, because couple mean scores and couple discrepancy scores measure different aspects of the marital relationship, using both may overcome the limitations of the other. Because of the complementary nature of these two scores, utilizing both in the same analyses may minimize the loss of data and maximize the information obtained (Olson et al. 1983).

Total scores achieved by husband and wife from the F-COPES questionnaire were used to arrive at mean and discrepancy scores. F-COPES measures five coping strategies: two internal strategies — reframing and passive appraisal; and three external strategies — acquiring social support, seeking spiritual support, and mobilizing the family to acquire and accept help. All of these strategies have been identified as being important to families in helping them deal with the problems and challenges which they encounter.

Results

Resource patterns. The distribution of resource consistency patterns for the five resources studied is reported in Table 2. Four patterns emerged, with all four patterns well represented. The majority of couples were located in the resource consistent categories (both members having scores which fell into the same range, either high or low). This is noteworthy given previous research which has studied the concept of agreement between spouses (Larson, 1974; Olson et al., 1983). In previous research, which has utilized correlations as a measure of consistency, correlation coefficients between husband and wife have tended to be

Table 1. Couple Resource Patterns

Husband's Resource Level	Wife's Resource Level	
	High	Low
High	Resource Consistent (HH)	Resource Inconsistent (HL)
Low	Resource Inconsistent (LH)	Resource Consistent (LL)

Table 2. Percentage Distribution: Couple Resource Patterns by Research Domain (N = 201)

Resource Domain		Resource Pattern			
		Consistent		Inconsistent	
		1 (LL)	2 (HH)	3 (HL)	4 (LH)
Marital Satisfaction	%	34	30	18	18
	n	69	60	36	36
	Total	64%		36%	
Personality Issues	%	35	31	18	16
	n	71	63	35	32
	Total	66%		34%	
Sexual Relationship	%	38	38	15.5	16.5
	n	76	61	31	33
	Total	68%		32%	
Family and Friends	%	32	27	18	23
	n	64	64	37	46
	Total	59%		41%	
Financial Management	%	28	29	34	9
	n	57	58	68	18
	Total	57%		43%	

Note: Resource Patterns are:

- 1 (LL) = Consistent low (both spouses low)
- 2 (HH) = Consistent high (both spouses high)
- 3 (HL) = Inconsistent (husband high, wife low)
- 4 (LH) = Inconsistent (husband low, wife high)

low, indicating low agreement or lack of agreement on even concrete matters such as level of income (Larson, 1974).

It is also interesting to note that the percentage of couples in the consistent categories appeared to be greater for marital satisfaction, satisfaction with personality issues, and satisfaction with their sexual relationship than for satisfaction with family and friends and satisfaction with financial management resources.

The results further indicate that the largest percentage of couples were located in the resource consistent low group (both husbands' and wives' scores were below the mean in each specified resource) for four of the five resources. The one exception was the resource financial management. On this particular resource, the largest percentage of couples was located in the resource inconsistent group in which husbands' scores were above the mean and the wives' scores were below the mean.

Analysis of variance was carried out to determine the relationship between couple resource patterns and couple coping. Separate tests were run using the couple mean and couple discrepancy scores on the coping variable. The null hypothesis tested was that the couple mean or discrepancy scores in each resource group were equal.

This general hypothesis was tested separately for each of the five resources. The results of the ANOVA (Table 3) indicate that significant findings were obtained with the use of mean scores. There were no significant findings obtained with the use of discrepancy scores. Significant differences were noted between the mean coping scores of the four resource pattern groups on three resource variables: marital satisfaction, personality issues, and satisfaction with the sexual relationship. These findings suggest that the mean coping scores may be more robust measures than discrepancy scores when assessing family members as a unit. Currently, there is not a sufficient body of research to conclusively determine the relative usefulness of these two "research generated" estimates of couple scores compared to other

techniques of assessing a group quality, for example, interactional analysis.

The post hoc (Scheffé Test) analysis indicated that on the resource variables of marital satisfaction and personality issues there was a significant difference at the .05 level between the coping mean scores of group two (HH) and group one (LL). Couples in group two (HH) had higher coping scores. On the sexual relationship variable there was a significant difference at the .05 level between group three (HL) and group one (LL) and at the .01 level between group two (HH) and group one (LL). Couples in groups two (HH) and three (HL) had higher coping mean scores. Couples who possessed larger resource pools scored significantly higher on coping scores than couples with smaller resource pools.

Discussion and Implications

In interpreting the results, it is important to keep in mind that the present sample was comprised of "healthy" couples, who appear to be dealing with the complexities of family life. They have experienced lengthy marriages (average of 19 years), had no identified personal or clinical problems, and no institutionalized family members. These couples were parents of an adolescent and thus were in the adolescent stage of the family life cycle.

In this study, couple resource patterns were examined. A particularly interesting finding was that the majority of couples perceived their resource levels consistently. This finding supports the basic assumption that has permeated the field of family studies in that family members develop and maintain a shared and distinctive view of their environment which facilitates the group to survive and/or thrive (Hess & Handel, 1976; Imig 1981; Kieren, 1983; Larson, 1972; Reiss, 1971). Ferreira and Winter (1973), in their report on level of agreement

Table 3. Analysis of Variance for Couple Resource Patterns and Couple Coping Mean Score

Couple Coping Mean Score	Couple Resource Patterns					F
	LL	HL	LH	HH	df	
Marital Satisfaction	90.19	94.47	94.19	95.46	3	4.3*
Personality Issues	90.76	91.65	93.95	96.42	3	4.8*
Sexual Relationships	90.14	95.74	93.91	95.15	3	4.3*

*p ≤ .01

between couples, found that in normal healthy couples when compared to those experiencing difficulties, agreement on basic issues existed between the spouses. It might be argued that in this sample of healthy couples, the majority of couples have developed a consistent perception of marital life. It might further be suggested that couples who have lengthy, intimate relationships cannot remain involved without reconciliation, integration, and consistent assumptions about the nature of their marital and family environment. This shared reality of their existence helps them make sense of their lives (Berger & Kellner, 1964).

While acknowledging the limitations inherent in any single study, certain recommendations can be suggested from these results. The findings support the importance of investigating the concept of agreement patterns among family members. Further study should address measurement issues related to the concept of agreement patterns. By using the mean as the cutting point in this study, four couple resource patterns emerged. However, it would be unrealistic to suggest that this is the only way a typology of couple agreement could be achieved. Observation of couples reaching agreement as well as couple consensus on levels of agreement for a variety of marital resources might also be recommended.

The largest percentage of couples were located in the resource consistent low group (both husbands' & wives' scores were below the mean) for four of the five resources investigated. The one exception was on the financial management resource. The pattern that emerged on this particular resource is highly suggestive of a traditional sex role division of labor, based upon expressive and instrumental roles. The instrumental role has been typically reserved for the husband/father (Boss, 1980; Brim, 1965; Schram & Hafstrom, 1986). While questionnaire data do not allow us to explore this interpretation in depth, they do suggest that couple resource patterns may vary depending upon the nature of the resource investigated. There may be some resources or issues which spouses perceive more similarly because there are fewer normative prescriptions about the attainment or possession of a particular level of that resource. This interesting and dynamic aspect of couple resource patterns and

its effect on the couple relationship requires further exploration.

The results from this study suggest two important aspects of resources which make up the family unit's resource pool. These are the individual level of resources and the systems or subsystem patterns of those individual levels of resources. The findings imply that the system's resource pool (determined by the individuals' level of resources and the system's pattern) may be a potentially critical variable for helping us comprehend why family systems and/or subsystems differ in their ability to cope with the challenges and problems they encounter. It is important to note that there was a relationship between the individual levels of resources and the couple pattern of these individual levels of resources and coping. Further, the results supported the hypothesis that the size of the resource pool was related to coping, in that couples with larger resource pools (HH) scored higher on coping. This may suggest that where both spouses perceive their resources to be at the high level there are more options for the family to draw from in stressful situations. The quality and quantity of their resource pool provides increased opportunities to make choices, to manage, and to change their environment. These families appear to display behaviors that facilitate adjustment and adaptation to the stressors they encounter. As well, the possession of high levels minimizes the possibility that the resource pool will be depleted. It might be postulated that families who possess a large resource pool, because of their increased ability to cope, could direct their energies towards growth rather than maintenance activities, thus improving their quality of life.

The importance of interpersonal issues such as the quality of the sexual relationship in healthy family functioning is well-documented (Olson et al., 1983; Stinnett & Defrain, 1985). Of particular interest is the finding regarding the sexual relationship variable. In the analysis, it is suggested that the husbands' level of this resource may be a significant factor in determining the couples' coping ability. It may be that husbands who positively appraise their marital relationship, specifically the sexual part of that relationship, facilitate the couple being able to work together to achieve the goals of the family. Boss

(1989) postulates that "women have stereotypically been the greater adapters in families" (p. 70). Women, it is proposed, will endure less than satisfying relationships and at the same time are expected to work towards family unity at all costs (Boss, 1989; Lauer & Lauer, 1986). This interpretation is tentative and stimulates questions for further research. The role of men in this adaptive role needs further testing.

The findings suggest that certain resources may play a more central role than others in relation to coping. Of the five couple resources investigated, high couple levels of marital satisfaction, satisfaction with personality issues, and satisfaction with the sexual relationship related significantly to coping scores. These resources have frequently been associated with healthy families and are considered characteristics of a strong marital unit (Otto, 1963; Satir, 1967; Stinnett, Saunders & Defrain, 1981; Stinnett & Defrain, 1985). The importance of a strong marital unit in the achievement of coping is reflected in these findings. Previous research that describes healthy, well-functioning families has frequently cited the importance of the marital unit as the basis for the quality of life experienced by the total family unit (Barnhill, 1979; Lewis, Beavers, Gossett & Phillips, 1976; Otto, 1963; Satir, 1967; Stinnett et al., 1981; 1985).

The research reported here is but a small step in the total understanding of couple resource patterns and family coping. Findings suggest that the couple's resource patterns may be important aspects to be considered by professionals working with families in handling stressors.

This vision of the importance of the couple resource pool is not a sudden or dynamic shift in thinking, but it does broaden and deepen our understanding of the challenges facing professionals working with families. The findings from this study serve as a caution to those seeking to collect information about families from only one member. Health and family life professionals who take an interest in the family system must be able to determine the quality of the resource pool and to work with the family to develop the resource pool, in order to help them manage the events which challenge them.

In addition, such a concept has implications for program development.

Practitioners need to be prepared to design family enrichment and health promotion strategies based upon the needs of families. Couple resource patterns and the size of the family unit's resource pool can provide specific direction to the needs of each family unit and emphasize the interdependencies of such units.

Even though the data in this study originated in the United States, the findings and issues presented in this paper have relevance for researchers and practitioners in Canada. The importance of assessing the couple's resource pattern and determining the size of the couple's resource pool has relevance, no matter where the couple resides. Researchers and clinicians in Canada as well as the United States must continue to challenge a narrow and individualistic conceptualization of family life so that measurement of family variables will increasingly be better approximations of the "family's reality". □

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Clothing Values of Women in Two Middle Eastern Cultures

Judith C. Forney and Nancy J. Rabolt

Abstract

An interview technique was used to investigate clothing values in two Middle Eastern countries, Saudi Arabia ($n = 60$) and Qatar ($n = 50$). Lapitsky's and Creekmore's value measurements were used to determine respondent's agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Mean scores fell in the same order for five values investigated in both countries: aesthetic, social I, political, economic, and social II. However, the first two values were rated significantly higher by more Qatari than Saudi women.

Résumé

La technique de l'entrevue fut utilisée pour analyser les valeurs vestimentaires dans deux pays du Moyen-Orient : l'Arabie-Saoudite ($n = 60$) et le Katar ($n = 50$). La corrélation, des valeurs des répondantes, fut déterminée par l'emploi de la méthode Lapitsky et Creekmore à l'échelle Likert. Dans les deux pays les résultats, obtenus par la moyenne mathématique, ont été du même ordre pour les cinq valeurs mesurées : esthétiques, sociales I, politiques, économiques et sociales II. Cependant un plus grand nombre de femmes du Katar que de l'Arabie-Saoudite, ont obtenu des résultats plus significatifs aux deux premières valeurs.

Many interactive social and cultural forces shape human behavior and influence the clothing which people choose to wear. Among these are fundamental beliefs included in value systems.

Spranger (1928) first suggested that people could be classified by six dominant value orientations: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. His work was the basis for Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey's (1960) measurement which ranked values in order of importance to the individual. Values express systematic human behavior; clothing choice is one example of human behavior. Thus, it is a natural extension

to investigate values as they relate to clothing. To this end, Lapitsky (1966) developed a measure for five clothing values: aesthetic, economic, political, social I (putting others at ease), and social II (approval from others). Using the earlier work of Allport et al. (1960) and Lapitsky (1966), Creekmore (1963, 1966) extended the clothing values to eight measures: aesthetic, economic, exploratory, political, religious, sensory, social, and theoretical.

Studying clothing values across cultures can enhance understanding of diverse people and variations in their behavior. Mendoza (1965) found American and Filipino female students to be similar for sensuous and social values but not exploratory, economic, or theoretical clothing values. Hao (1971) found that Chinese students in Taiwan and American students in the United States ranked theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious clothing values differently in order of importance with significant differences for the aesthetic and religious values. Because values reflect socio-economic environments, clothing values may vary across cultures in response to different social

and cultural traditions and historical experiences.

Clothing values have been studied for groups who, although they now reside in the same country, have origins reflecting different historical and cultural backgrounds. When investigating how Anglo-Americans and Chinese-Americans ranked aesthetic, economic, political, social I and social II clothing values, Forney and Rabolt (1987) found only one difference in the rank order. Anglos ranked aesthetic first and economic second while the Chinese reversed this order. However, three significant differences were found in magnitude with Anglos rating aesthetics higher, and in a different rank order, and the Chinese rating social I and social II higher but still in the same rank order as the Anglos.

Senga, Brown, and Gonzales (1987) compared Filipino women residing in Canada, an ethnic group of recent immigrant status, with the respondents in Mendoza's (1965) study of Filipino university women in the Philippines on eight clothing values. Even after a 20-year lapse of time and a change in country of residence, these

Judith C. Forney (PhD, Purdue University) is Professor of Clothing and Textiles and Nancy J. Rabolt (PhD, University of Tennessee, Knoxville) is Associate Professor of Clothing and Textiles in the Consumer and Family Studies/Dietetics Department at San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Ave., San Francisco, CA 94132. Research was conducted at San Francisco State University 1985, 1987.

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two groups were remarkably similar with six values ranked the same; only the aesthetic and economic values were reversed.

Values reflect individual interpretations of socio-cultural environments. In studying consumer value dimensions and durable goods purchases, Henry (1976) found culture and its associated values to be an underlying consumer behavior determinant. He suggested that cultural values may serve to predict shifting consumption patterns. Caldwell and Jernigan's (1988) findings of distinct differences in clothing values for customers of three different fabric retailers suggest that changing lifestyles in the United States might be responsible for these differences. It may be that expressed values can indicate the direction a society is moving in relation to its past conditions.

In the Middle East, socio-cultural environments are steeped in strong traditional value systems which are highly visible in clothing patterns, particularly women's dress. Women are generally required to cover themselves when in public by wearing a veil and an all-enveloping outer garment such as the *abbaya* which is worn in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Islam is a unifying cross-cultural influence; both religious and secular lives are permeated by *sharia* (religious) law which is the basis for personal conduct and political governance.

Saudi Arabia has an estimated population of over 11 million people; approximately 41% of the Saudi population are non-national ("Saudi Arabia: Population," 1987). In the past 50 years, a developing oil-based economy in this Kingdom has resulted in rapid and dramatic changes. Most Saudis, however, have an unshakable determination to retain traditional Islamic values (Powell, 1982).

Qatar has a population of about 213,500; non-nationals account for about 60% of this total population ("Qatar: Non-national," 1987). This sultanate too has undergone rapid change and modernization due to oil development. The subsequent high incomes and affluent lifestyles due to oil production have made this geographic region one of the world's richest marketplaces.

Although the indigenous people of Saudi Arabia and Qatar share the same religion, exhibit affluent lifestyles, and

have socio-cultural environments based on similar traditions, they have had very different historical and political experiences. Saudi Arabia has never had external Western political control while Qatar was bound to Great Britain by treaty. This may have had an effect on Qatar's socio-cultural environment and its indigenous people's behavioral patterns.

Middle Eastern consumers, particularly women, are generally bound by strict traditional and religious parameters which dictate their choices in the marketplace and influence the value they place on consumer goods. Limited apparel production, preferences for high quality fashion-oriented goods, and rapid population growth have increased the demand for apparel imports to the Middle East. Tuncalp and Yavas (1986) recommended market research as essential in identifying local tastes in the Saudi marketplace if exports to that Kingdom are to be successful. This may be true for other Middle Eastern societies as well. Meeting the increased Middle Eastern clothing demand requires an accurate understanding of values which influence clothing preferences. Knowledge of Middle Eastern women's clothing values will aid in understanding the consumer behavior patterns unique to this geographic region.

Purpose and Objectives

Research on cross-cultural clothing values has primarily focussed on comparisons between Western and non-Western cultures. The first objectives of this study was to extend cross-cultural understanding by comparing clothing values in two Middle Eastern countries, Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Because of Islam's pervasive influence in Middle Eastern cultures, many Westerners assume all people living in that geographic region will exhibit like behaviors. Therefore, a second objective of this study was to determine the extent to which differences or similarities in clothing values might exist.

Method

Interviews with only women present were done with 60 Saudi female nationals in Saudi Arabia and 50 Qatari female nationals in Qatar. The Saudi interviews were done with either caregivers or women receiving care in a large metropolitan hospital open to all Saudi nationals. The Qatari interviews were conducted in either a

sheik's home, the interviewer's home, or in one of two public places: a hospital or a beauty salon. Quantitative data were collected by an Arab non-national female who was fluent in both Arabic and English. The Saudi interviewer had lived and worked for several years in that Kingdom while the Qatari interviewer had been born and raised in Qatar.

The selection of participants to be interviewed was restricted by many factors over which the researchers had no control. Thus, the sample and its selection may be viewed as a limitation of this study, and it points out a difficulty which may be faced when doing cross-cultural research. In general, research techniques and the concept of research are unknown to many people in developing and newly-developed countries. The notion of asking questions and recording responses is not widely accepted and is often viewed with some suspicion. Many social and political boundaries exist in Middle Eastern countries which may not be hindrances to doing research in other settings. Entrance into Saudi Arabia is strictly controlled by the national government and travel visas are not issued unless an individual is entering by invitation. In both Saudi Arabia and Qatar, women, regardless of national origin, are not able to interact in public. In Qatar, strict social protocol limits access to women unless the individual is personally known to the family. This is particularly true if the woman is a sheik family member. In the Middle East, women are very restricted in where they can socialize other than in the home. The hospital and the beauty parlor represent two of the few public places frequented by women and where it is possible for them to interact with their friends. Respondents for this study were solicited on a voluntary basis in the three places most available and appropriate to women in these two countries: the home of a known person, the hospital, and the beauty parlor.

The interview technique was deemed appropriate because it was not known initially if the respondents would be able to read a questionnaire whether it was in Arabic or in English. Women have had access to education in these two countries only since the early 1960s. Also, the private nature of these societies closes them to outsiders. This necessitated having someone

familiar with both social structure and protocol to interact with respondents.

Input from Saudi and Qatari women residing in the United States was used to formulate culturally sensitive interview questions. Although previous studies investigating clothing values had subjects rank-order values, this method was not appropriate for this study. In pilot testing the value statements (discussed below) with 10 Saudi female nationals in the United States, these women expressed much confusion in the rank-order process. Cultural resource persons from both countries indicated this problem might be even worse when used in the respective cultures and in a one-on-one interview situation. Therefore, the data on values were collected using a 5-point Likert-type scale which determined the respondent's level of agreement with the importance of each value statement. Response options ranged from strongly agree (5) to neutral (3) to strongly disagree (1). There were two statements for each value. Table 1 identifies the descriptors used to define each value's concept. Descriptors were based on Lapitsky's (1966) and Creekmore's (1966) value statements. With input from the resource persons, the final selection and wording of descriptors were developed to provide appropriate statements for these two Middle Eastern samples. Summed mean scores for the two value statements (score range from 2 to 10) were compared for the two samples.

The data were gathered in two stages. First, data were gathered in Saudi Arabia using Lapitsky's (1966) five clothing values: aesthetic, political, economic, social I, and social II. Data for the Saudi sample were one component of a larger comprehensive study (Rabolt & Forney, 1989). Upon extension of this study to Qatar, interviews with reference persons suggested that additional values might influence clothing choices. Literature cited earlier also supports this expanded investigation. Further data collection from the Saudi population was not possible due to social and political conditions which limited foreigners' access to the population. The instrument used in Qatar included Lapitsky's (1966) original five clothing values plus an additional four identified by Creekmore (1963, 1966): sensory, theoretical, exploratory, and religious. Descriptive information for age, marital status, travel, working status, and education were gathered in both

countries. A *t*-test compared the mean scores of the two groups for the first five clothing values.

Results

About 40% of the Saudi sample and 50% of the Qatari sample had the U.S. equivalent of some higher education; they had completed more than twelve years of school. The age range for the Saudi sample was from 20 to 55 with about two-thirds between the ages of 20 and 35. The age range for the Qatari sample was from 14 to 60 with slightly less than two-thirds between the ages of 20 and 30. Almost 80% of the Saudi sample and 100% of the Qatari sample were single women. Over half of both samples worked outside the home. This latter finding is much larger than the norm; only about 4% of the Saudi and 20% of the Qatari nationals who work are women ("Qatar: Non-national," 1987; "Saudi Arabia: Population," 1987). For most demographic characteristics, these two groups were

similar and were representative of younger female populations in Middle Eastern countries who are more likely than their older counterparts to be educated, working, and single.

The overall mean scores for both groups for the first five clothing values investigated fell in the same order of highest to lowest mean score: aesthetic, social I, political, economic, and social II (see Table 1). However, *t*-tests indicated significant differences between Saudi and Qatari women for aesthetic ($p < .001$) and social I ($p < .05$) clothing values with Qatari women having higher mean scores. For the nine values investigated in Qatar, the highest overall mean score was for the sensory value followed by theoretical, aesthetic, religious, exploratory, social I, political, economic, and social II values.

Discussion

The data suggest that women in Saudi Arabia and Qatar do exhibit some similar clothing values. The five

Table 1. Overall Mean Scores^a and Significant Differences for Clothing Values of Saudi and Qatari Women

Clothing Values	Saudi (<i>n</i> = 60) <i>M</i>	Qatari (<i>n</i> = 50) <i>M</i>	<i>t</i>
Sensory		9.76	
• is comfortable to touch			
• feels good against body			
Theoretical		9.36	
• uses real not imitation materials			
• is made of cotton or silk			
Aesthetic	7.15	9.34	8.42**
• is very beautiful			
• is of good design			
Religious		8.82	
• covers my body completely			
• is not revealing			
Exploratory		8.12	
• can be combined in many ways			
• can be mixed and matched			
Social I	7.03	7.48	1.61*
• makes others feel comfortable			
• is not more expensive or fashionable than what friends wear			
Political	6.84	6.83	NS
• looks very costly			
• enhances ability to be successful			
Economic	6.48	6.60	NS
• gives value for money			
• is useful with long life			
Social II	6.28	6.28	NS
• helps me feel part of group			
• is similar to my friends			

Note: Sensory, theoretical, religious, and exploratory clothing values were not measured for the Saudi sample.

^aRange = 10 to 2: 10 = strongly agree it is important; 6 = neutral to it is important; and 2 = strongly disagree it is important.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$.

clothing values studied in both countries were rated in a similar order of importance with no difference given to political, economic, and social II values. Thus, it may be that these three clothing values are relatively more consistent across Middle Eastern societies than aesthetic and social I clothing values. These findings need to be interpreted with some caution. When responses were solicited from the Qatari sample for four additional clothing values, two of these values were viewed as more important than the highest rated value investigated for the Saudi sample. In addition, Qatari mean scores for two additional values exceeded in mean scores the importance given to the remaining four values rated by the Saudi women. This emphasizes the need to look at the full range of values for all groups under study.

When the five values investigated in both countries were compared, the aesthetic value related to wearing beautiful and well-designed clothing was the most important for both Saudis and Qataris. Valuing aesthetics may be more universal than other values associated with clothing; the aesthetic value has received either the highest or next to the highest ranking in other cross-cultural studies as well (Caldwell & Jernigan, 1988; Forney & Rabolt, 1987; Hao, 1971; Senga et al., 1987).

Both Saudi and Qatari women in this study felt it was important that their clothing put others at ease (social I) by not being more expensive or fashionable than that which their friends wore. In many Islamic societies, women's social interactions are limited to female friends, co-workers and clientele, and family members. Interacting with friends is an important aspect of daily life often manifested in the tradition of strong hospitality found in these two cultures. Much effort is given to make guests feel welcome and comfortable. It would be inappropriate for a hostess to outdo a guest and vice versa. Much less importance has been given to this value in studies of other cultural groups, for example, Filipinos (Senga et al., 1987) and Chinese Americans (Forney & Rabolt, 1987). This may be an example of how socio-cultural environment influences clothing values.

Of nearly equal importance to both the Saudi and Qatari samples, but of lesser importance than the aesthetic or

social I value, was the political value reflected in wearing clothing which looks very costly or enhances one's ability to be successful. Designer clothing has gained much popularity in the Middle East. The pervasive affluence found there has made designer clothing more attainable for women in these countries. Recognizing the potential for a lucrative apparel market in the Middle East, some international designers now produce their lines to meet these women's specific needs for modest clothing such as floor-length and long-sleeved gowns.

Economic considerations such as selecting long-lasting clothing was not as important to these Saudi and Qatari women. In other studies, the economic clothing value has been ranked higher possibly due to less affluence because the subjects were students (Forney & Rabolt, 1987) or immigrants (Senga et al., 1987).

Both Saudi and Qatari women placed the least importance on clothing which gave them approval from others (social II). Prescribed traditions and religious law already set the parameters for women's social acceptance and approval. Dress is one area where women have some freedom of expression. However, it is in situations where only women are present (for example the home, the hospital, or the beauty parlor) that women can freely remove their veils and outer-body coverings such as the abaya to reveal the clothing worn. Although these women might seek to put their friends at ease by wearing clothing parallel in cost and fashionability, social acceptance does not require them to be similarly dressed. Marketers might emphasize this potential desire to express individuality in dress by providing apparel which first meets the prescribed socially acceptable form in that it covers the body and then varying the apparel in style, color, and decorative attributes.

Qatari women in this study differed from the Saudi women with significantly higher ratings for two values: aesthetic and social I. The overall mean score range for the nine values investigated in Qatar was much broader than the range for the five values investigated in Saudi Arabia. The Qatari respondents placed the most importance on the sensory value related to wearing comfortable clothing which felt good against the body.

They also gave much importance to the theoretical value of wearing real materials such as cotton and silk and not imitations such as synthetic materials; the religious value identified with non-revealing clothing which completely covered the body; and the exploratory value identified as clothing which could be combined in many ways and mixed or matched. Although the religious value did retain importance for the Qatari sample, three other values were rated as more important. This may indicate a movement away from the traditionally high religious influence in their secular lives.

Implications for Further Research

This study suggests that values placed on clothing by Middle Eastern women may be strongly influenced by a variety of factors associated with their socio-cultural environment. Further research might compare clothing values with other environmental influences such as the geographic area of residence. For example, the high value Qatari women placed on comfortable clothing (sensory) made of natural fibers (theoretical) may have been due to climate. These values were not tested in Saudi Arabia.

Wearing modest clothing generally is attributed to religious influences. This might be assessed by comparing clothing values to religiosity levels. There is evidence that Middle Eastern women are returning to more traditional family and social values due to growing fundamentalism (Haddad, 1984). This might be examined in relationship to clothing values and particularly across cultures as religious fundamentalism is experiencing a rebirth in other societies such as the United States.

The low importance given to status associated with expensive, costly-looking clothing, and concern for getting good value from clothing may be due to the affluence shared by many Middle Eastern people. Additional research might investigate clothing values and the amount of money available for clothing expenditures. As increasing numbers of women enter national work forces where they work for pay, clothing values may be redefined in terms of new social and economic roles and expectations.

In this study, Middle Eastern women placed less importance on wearing

clothing similar to their friends. Individuality in clothing styles may be redefined with expanded worldwide distribution of designer and brand name clothing. Further research might compare clothing values with clothing styles such as traditional versus Western styles and particular clothing styles used for status such as brand name or designer apparel. In addition, research might be done in determining clothing values for clothing worn in public and private settings by Middle Eastern women.

This research needs to be expanded to other Middle Eastern cultures to verify these findings which are based on limited samples. In addition, to better understand how values influence clothing choices, similar studies need to be extended to diverse cultures. □

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Abstracts of Current Literature

Family and Consumer Studies

Coping efforts and marital satisfaction: Measuring marital coping and its correlates.

Bowman, M.L. (1990)
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 52, 463-474.

Marriage is an important source of information concerning the structure and effects of coping efforts. Marriage is such a central and important life status as well as one that repeatedly calls for coping efforts. Yet, there have been few attempts to construct specific measures to study coping efforts in marriage. Therefore, the purposes of this study were: a) the development of an instrument for assessing the use of coping efforts in dealing with marital strains, a marital coping inventory, b) the determination of the relationship between the use of particular coping efforts and marital happiness, and c) the identification of the major demographic correlates of the use of particular coping efforts, including sex, age, years married, number of children, and education.

The sample for this study consisted of 368 married persons from the greater Vancouver, British Columbia area. These persons had a mean age of 39.8 years, had been married a mean of 15.8 years, had a mean of 1.6 children, and were 61% female. In developing the coping efforts scale, three consecutive versions were constructed by the researchers. The final scale consisted of five subscales with satisfactory Cronbach's Alpha (Conflict, .88; Introspective self-blame, .88; Positive Approach, .82; Self-interest, .82; and Avoidance, .77). This final scale of 64 items was studied to determine the scale-score attributes of subjects sorted for age, sex, education, years married, and for aspects of validity relating to overall marital happiness and problem severity.

The findings of this study suggest that responsiveness to the emotional qualities of the relationship is more typical in happy marriages than is the use of cool, rational problem-management. Open conflict was found to be a feature of an unhappy marriage, while avoidance was significantly and negatively associated with marital happiness. Emotion-focussed coping is not always positively oriented and self-interest was significantly associated with marital unhappiness. Coping efforts were found to be more powerful predictors of marital happiness than were demographic variables. Coping efforts varied significantly as a function of age, sex, and years married but not as a function of education or children.

Family environment and family day-care.

Goelman, H., Shapiro, E., and Pence, A.R. (1990)
Family Relations, 39, 14-19.

Family day-care is the most widely used and least researched form of child care in North America. Past research

has focussed on either the programmatic quality of the day-care experience, or selected aspects of the family day-care providers own family life. There have been few attempts to examine the relationship between the program and the family life of the provider. Therefore, the purpose of this research study was to examine: a) the level of cognitive stimulation available to children in the family day-care home, b) aspects of the social and emotional dynamics of the caregivers own family, and c) the quality of the day-care program.

The sample for this study consisted of 44 family day-care providers from the greater Vancouver, British Columbia area. The mean age for the providers was 37 years, and they had been offering family day-care for an average of 32 months. The mean number of children they cared for was 5.3, and they provided care for 43 hours per week. The mean age of the children in care was 45 months. Data were collected using the following instruments: Caldwell and Bradley's (1979) Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) scale; Moo's (1986) Family Environment Scale (FES); and Harms, Clifford, and Padan-Belkin's (1983) Day-care Home Environment Rating Scale (DCHERS).

The results strongly suggest a close linkage between the quality of the day-care program and the dynamics of the family life of the day-care provider. The data reveal that better quality family day-care programs are found when: the provider's home environment offers an optimal level of cognitive stimulation to young children; the providers family life is well organized; her family members have a sense of independence and self-sufficiency; and her family spends time on intellectual, cultural, and recreational activities. These findings have implications for day-care providers, trainers, consultants, caregivers, and parents.

Adult development through guided autobiography: The family context.

deVries, B., Birren, J.E., and Deutchman, D.E. (1990)
Family Relations, 39, 3-7.

The aging of our society poses special concerns for families as members are faced with new roles and new forms of interdependency. Life review is a vital mechanism for educating families about shifting roles throughout the life course and increasing older adults' sense of self-efficacy. This article explores the integrative process of life review through guided Autobiography, with a special focus on the family context. The authors also discuss the historical perspective of autobiographies, the process and method of the Guided Autobiography, and some implications of Guided Autobiography for family life education.

Guided Autobiography is a topical approach to life review designed to provide a productive environment for reflection and integration of one's life story. It is an educational

process of bringing one's understanding of the past into the present in order to integrate the experiences of a lifetime. Writing one's autobiography serves the following purposes: a) it can help put the contradictions of life into perspective; b) it reaffirms one's ability to meet life's challenges and; c) it can provide the context to restore one's sense of self-sufficiency and personal identity.

Guided Autobiography includes two steps: 1) autobiographical essays on selected topics are written by the individual. These two-page essays are written on nine different themes. These themes (ie: the major branching points in life, loves, and hates) have proven to elicit the strongest recollections and often suggest the threads which bind the life story. 2) The participants read their essays in a group to encourage and enrich life review. This is felt to be an important part of the process as it allows for reinforcing motivation, support and feedback, as well as for the opportunity for individuals to see themselves in the development of others.

The unique features of the Guided Autobiography — its guided nature and the group process — have special potential for facilitating intergenerational communication in families, understanding shifting family roles over time, and assisting in the search for meaning in one's life.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Are head start effects sustained? A longitudinal follow-up. Comparison of disadvantaged children attending head start, no preschool and other preschool programs. Lee, V.E., Brooks-Gunn, J., Schnur, E., and Liaw, F.R., (1990). *Child Development*, 61(2), 495-507.

Social networks & health: Impact of returning home after entry into residential care homes. Bear, M. (1990). *The Gerontologist*, 30 (1), 30-34.

Consumer skepticism of advertising claims: Testing hypotheses from economics of information. Ford, G.T., Smith, D.B., and Swasy, J.L. (1990). *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16 (4), 433-441.

Sterilization anxiety & fertility control in the years of childbearing. Groat, T.H., Neal, A.G., and Wicks, J.W. (1990). *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 52, 244-258.

Adjustment of children born to teenage mothers: The contribution of risk and protective factors. Dubow, E.F. and Luster, T. (1990). *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 52, 393-404.

Submitted by:
Susan MacLeod, BSH, BEd
Graduate Student
University of Alberta

Foods and Nutrition

Nibbling versus gorging: Metabolic advantages of increased meal frequency.

Jenkins, D.J.A., Wolever, T.M.S., Vuksan, V., Brighenti, F., Cunnane, S.C., Rao, A.V., Jenkins, A.L., Buckley, G., Patten, R., Singer, W., Corey, P., and Josse, R.G. (1989). *New England Journal of Medicine*, 321, 929-934.

The effect of increasing meal frequency on serum lipid levels and carbohydrate tolerance was studied in seven normal male subjects with a mean age of 39.6 years (range 31-51 years). In a randomized, cross-over design, subjects

were assigned to one of two metabolically identical diets. One diet divided the food into three meals while the other diet consisted of 17 snacks per day (nibbling diet). Each diet was followed for two weeks with a mean of 20 days separating the two two-week periods.

The nibbling diet reduced fasting serum total cholesterol and low density lipoprotein cholesterol concentrations by a mean of 8.5% and 13.5%, respectively. The mean blood glucose level and serum levels of free fatty acids and triglyceride were similar during both diets. During the nibbling diet the mean serum insulin level fell by 27.9%. As well, the mean 24-hour urinary cortisol excretion was 17.3% lower at the end of the nibbling diet than at the end of the three meal diet. Responses to a glucose tolerance test conducted at the end of each two-week diet period, were similar.

The authors concluded that along with the amount and type of food eaten, meal frequency may be an important determinant of fasting serum lipid levels. This may be related to changes in insulin secretion.

The effect of dietary fat reduction on intake of major nutrients and fat soluble vitamins.

Stephen, A.M. and Deneer, M.J. (1990)
Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association 51, 281-285.

To assess the short-term effect on intake of major nutrients when fat intake is reduced to 30% of energy, 24 healthy nutrition students aged 20-30 years, were studied. Subjects consumed and recorded their usual diet for six days. In the following two weeks they were instructed to consume and record a diet containing 30% of energy as fat. After the first 6 day period, analysis showed that 9 subjects were already consuming a low fat diet. No further changes were made in their dietary pattern and they became a control group (Group 2) for those lowering their fat intake (Group 1).

Group 1 successfully lowered dietary fat intake from 36.5% energy to 27.5% energy. Energy intake was not maintained, with the average intake falling from 1819 kcal to 1472 kcal per day. Absolute amounts of protein, carbohydrate, and fibre consumed remained unchanged. However, due to the lower fat intake, the proportion of energy from protein and carbohydrate increased. Protein energy contribution rose to 17.8% from 15.8%. For carbohydrate, percentage of energy provided rose from 47.8% to 53.6%. This was still significantly lower than found with Group 2. Group 1 still consumed less dietary fibre daily than Group 2 with the average consumption being 17.7 g compared to 30.2 g. Intakes of fat soluble vitamins A and D did not change with lowered fat consumption while vitamin E levels fell significantly for Group 1. On average, subjects in Group 1 lost 0.7 kg during the 3-week study while Group 2 subjects averaged a 0.4 kg loss.

The authors stated a concern regarding the possible problems faced by the general population when reducing fat content. Nutrition students in this study failed to maintain energy intake. A daily reduction of 350 kcal is not likely to be tolerated by most persons. The mere substitution of low fat items for high fat foods is not enough. Nutrition educators need to stress replacement of lost energy with high carbohydrate foods, not just to reduce fat intake.

Effect of breakfast cereals on short-term food intake.

Levine, A.S., Tallman, J.R., Grace, M.K., Parker, S.A., Billington, C.J., and Levitt, M.D. (1989)

American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 50, 1303-1307.

To study the effect of high fibre cereals on short-term food intake, two studies were conducted. In study one, 14 adult subjects ate one of five breakfast cereals with milk and orange juice at 0730. All had fasted from 2200 the previous night. A buffet lunch was served to subjects at 1100 with intake measured during the 30 minute meal. In study two, 19 adult subjects followed the same protocol except that they received only a very high fibre or very low fibre cereal at the breakfast meal. These two cereals provided an average of 22.2 grams and 0 grams dietary fibre, respectively. All subjects completed a questionnaire before the buffet lunch to elicit degree of hunger experienced prior to the lunch meal.

In study one, an inverse relationship was found between fibre content of the five cereals tested and the amount of energy consumed at the buffet lunch. In the second study, subjects consumed fewer calories at lunch after eating the very high fibre cereal at breakfast compared to the very low fibre cereal. The questionnaires showed a tendency for subjects to feel less hungry after eating the higher fibre cereals.

The authors called for further research to determine the reasons for the possible short term decrease in energy consumption following ingestion of a high fibre cereal.

"New" food-borne pathogens of public health significance.

Ryser, E.T. and Marth, E.H. (1989)

Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 89, 948-954.

Several previously unrecognized bacterial pathogens have attracted considerable attention due to major outbreaks of food-borne illness. *Listeria monocytogenes* has been identified as a serious threat to susceptible consumers and to the entire food industry. Listeriosis has been characterized by cases of meningitis, abortion, and perinatal septicemia. *L. monocytogenes* is able to grow at refrigeration temperatures in raw and processed meats, poultry, vegetables, soft cheeses, and seafood. *Yersinia enterocolitica* has been associated with several outbreaks of illness linked to the consumption of raw and pasteurized milk and contaminated water. Yersiniosis typically results in enterocolitis which may be mistaken for acute appendicitis. *Campylobacter jejuni* has only recently been recognized as a food-borne pathogen and a leading cause of gastroenteritis. Outbreaks of campylobacteriosis have been linked to consumption of raw milk, cake icing, eggs, poultry, and beef. Recently, sporadic cases of cholera and milk gastroenteritis have resulted from consumption of water, shrimp, crab, and oysters contaminated with *Vibrio cholerae* 01 and *V. cholerae* non-01. Since 1982, a strain of *Escherichia coli*, serotype 0157:H7, has become established as the cause of two life-threatening conditions — haemorrhagic colitis and haemolytic uraemic syndrome. Ground beef and raw milk are the two main foods associated with this pathogen.

Thorough cooking of raw foods and avoidance of cross-contamination of foods have been emphasized by public health officials to help alleviate the current food-borne illness situation. The authors state that proper programs in

food sanitation education and use of common sense can help to avert many potential problems involving currently recognized and as yet unknown food-borne pathogens.

Black and white adolescents' perception of their weight.

Desmond, S.M., Price, J.H., Hallinan, C., and Smith, D. (1989)

Journal of School Health 59, 353-358.

To determine perceived self-weight and body image, a 22-item questionnaire was administered to 341 adolescent students (138 black and 193 white) from schools serving mainly the lower socioeconomic strata. Actual weights and heights were obtained from participants to facilitate classification of students as thin, normal, or heavy based on National Health Survey data for ages 12-17 years.

Differences were found in how black and white students perceived their weight category. All heavy white females perceived themselves as heavy. Only 40% of heavy black females categorized themselves as heavy with the other 60% rating themselves as normal weight. The majority of thin and normal weight black females correctly identified their weight, category, 64% and 73% respectively. Of the normal weight white females, only 51% perceived themselves as such, with 43% categorizing themselves as heavy. Fifty-eight percent of thin white females correctly identified their weight category, but 42% felt that they belonged in the normal weight group.

White males perceived their weights more accurately than did black males. In the normal weight group, 82% of the white males and 63% of the black males correctly categorized themselves. In the heavy group, though, while 78% of white males correctly perceived their weight, only 36% of black males were able to do so.

Satisfaction with current appearance by white females was found with 75% of the thin group, 53% of the normal weight group, and 25% of the heavy group. Black female students were significantly more satisfied with their appearance as shown by 50% of the thin group, 63% of the normal weight group, and 47% of the heavy group stating satisfaction. Males responded similarly.

When asked about weight control measures, 18% of thin black females and 17% of thin white females had dieted for control in the past six months, while 64% of black and 25% of white students had exercised for the same reason. More white normal and heavy students dieted for weight control than did black students. Normal weight and heavy males were more likely to exercise than diet for weight control regardless of race. Leading sources of weight control information for both races were television, family members, and athletic coaches.

The authors stated a possible cultural influence for the racial differences in perceived weight. It is possible that the black subculture does not impose the same negative connotations for being heavy that exist in the white subculture. For white females, being thin seems to be a necessity for beauty.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Calcium content of soup stocks with added vinegar. Hadfield, L.C., Beard, L.P., and Leonard-Green, T.K. (1989). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 89, 1810-1811.

Water: Can the endurance athlete get too much of a good thing?
Barr, S.I. and Costill, D.L. (1989). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 89, 1629-1632, 1635.

Weight cycling for profit: Countering the claims of diet clinics.
Collins, M.E. (1989). *Journal of School Health*, 59, 264-268.

Promoting breastfeeding: A roll for the dietitian/nutritionist.
Official position of The Canadian Dietetic Association. The Canadian Dietetic Association (1989). *Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association*, 50, 211-214.

A strategy for designing effective patient education materials.
McCabe, B.J., Tysinger, J.W., Kreger, M., and Currwin, A.C. (1989). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 89, 1290-1292, 1295.

High blood alcohol levels in women. The role of decreased gastric dehydrogenase activity and first-pass metabolism. Freeza, M., di Padova, C., Pozzato, G., Terpin, M., Baraona, E., and Lieber, C.S. (1990). *New England Journal of Medicine*, 322, 95-99.

Submitted by:
Laurie Wadsworth, MSc
Public Health Nutritionist
Swift Current, Saskatchewan

Textiles and Clothing

Air permeability and linting of woven, nonwoven and coated fabrics for cleanroom garments.

Brandt, B. (1990)
Home Economics Research Journal, 18 (3), 236-244.

Linting and air permeability properties of commercially available fabrics used in protective cleanroom garments were studied to determine fabric performance. Fabric tested varied widely as to air permeability, with coated membrane constructions and two types of nonwovens having the lowest air permeability values and allowing less air passage than wovens and other nonwoven fabrics. Results from linting tests indicated that coated membrane fabrics produced the least lint and nonwovens produced the most. Woven fabric fell into the mid-range of lint produced. Of the three construction types, coated fabrics were found to be the least linting and most effective in inhibiting air passage. Cleanroom garment manufacturers should explore the use of other coated constructions as fabrics for protective clothing in cleanrooms. These coated constructions are examples of the latest in fabric coating technology and are similar to the coated membrane fabrics analyzed in this study with respect to limited air passage and low linting properties.

CAD/CAM in the textile and apparel industry.

Collier, B.J. and Collier, J.R. (1990)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal 8 (3), 7-13.

CAD/CAM technology is becoming increasingly apparent in the textile and apparel industries in the United States. The purpose of this study was to review all of the applications for CAD/CAM and determine the integration of CAD/CAM technology throughout the production and marketing chain. Results show that adoption of voluntary standards of electronic data usage is central to integration of CAD/CAM technology. As well, training of students in textiles and clothing in the importance of electronic communication, as well as in the software and hardware involved, is an important task for textile and clothing educators.

Additionally, the linkages between the textile and apparel production and distribution should be emphasized, and the facilitation of the linkages is suggested as an important research focus.

The effect of customer dress on attitudes towards selling service by sales associates.

Harp, S., Horridge, P., and Strickler, S. (1990).
Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 14 (1), 87-100.

Eliminating the criticism levelled towards customer service in retail firms is a current consumer/marketing issue. Customer satisfaction encompasses factors such as sales service and first impression. Research focusing on variables pertaining to emotional labor has the potential of increasing sales productivity and consumer satisfaction. The purpose of this study was exploratory in nature, to determine if relationships exist between customer appearance and first impressions and sales service. Four department stores having similar demographics participated and in total 103 sales staff took part in the survey. The questionnaire solicited demographic information and attitude towards selling service. In phase two (first impression), participants were asked to give their impression of a photograph of a model wearing different levels of clothing ranging from dressy to casual. Results of the study suggest that the potential exists for apparel to influence sales associate customer evaluations. A positive association was found between the sales service and first impression.

Comparison of the anthropometry of black males and white males with implication for pant fit.

Littlejohn Giddings, V.L. and Ferguson Boles, J. (1990)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 8 (3), 25-28.

Anthropometry is primarily the measurement of the dimensions of the human body. Anthropometric studies have indicated some specific differences between black people and white people. The purpose of this study was to determine if there were distinct differences between black and white males in the lower torso area and the resulting implications for pant fit. Eighty-nine black males and 94 white males between the ages of 18 and 30 were investigated to determine whether (1) the two groups differed in their ability to obtain properly fitting pants; (2) differences existed in their anthropometric morphology; and (3) a pants pattern could be developed that would fit the group with the greater difficulty. Results from the pant fit questionnaire indicated that black males needed pants alterations more often than white males. An analysis of the anthropometric data revealed a difference between black males and white males for various body measurements. A sample pants pattern was developed to fit the average measurements of the black group. The fit of the pants was evaluated on a body with the average measurements. A panel of judges gave the pants an overall good rating on fit.

"She had a web of clothing to weave": Women's role in 19th-century textile production.

Wilson, L.E. and Franck, L.M. (1990)
Clothing and Textile Research Journal, 8 (3), 58-63.

It is known that during the 19th century men were professional weavers, but there is not proof that women also

did commercial handweaving. The purpose of this investigation was to determine women's role in textile production through a content analysis of the probate records of a region of North Carolina. Both quantitative and qualitative data were found, but qualitative data illustrate most clearly women's role in textile production. Information from some of the documents in the probate files indicates that textile production was important in women's daily lives and that women in this region were involved in a form of commercial textile production.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Effect of perspiration on the fine structure of cotton fabrics. Bhat, N.V., Dharmadhikari, A.R., Wani, S.N., and Kulkarni, S.D. (1990). *Textile Research Journal*, 60 (4), 240-246.

Influence of physical disability and dress on female job applicants on interviewers. Christman, L.A. & Bransan, D.H. (1990). *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, 8, (3), 51-57.

Design and development of an architecture for computer-integrated manufacturing in the apparel industry, Part I: Basic concepts and methodology section. Jayaraman, S. (1990). *Textile Research Journal*, 60 (5), 247-254.

Clothing and changing sex roles: Comparison of qualitative and quantitative analysis. Lennon, S.J. (1990). *Home Economics Research Journal*, 18 (3), 245-254.

Linking anthropology and history in textiles and clothing research: The ethnohistorical approach. Pannabecker, R.K. (1990). *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, 8 (3), 14-18.

Submitted by:
Mary Ann McCreight, FD, PHEc
MSc Graduate Student
University of Manitoba

Canadian Home Economics Association L'Association canadienne d'économie familiale

1990 CHEA AWARD WINNERS

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BOURSE RUTH BINNIE

Ellen Hall (part-time)

Mary Boni (part-time)

Heidi Adair (part-time)

New Developments

Compiled by Brenda White

... In Publications

Consumer Food Trends for the 1990s

This is the report on current trends in food consumption in Canada on factors such as the aging population, changing ethnic mix, health concerns, and new attitudes and values. It also analyzes the underlying causes of these trends, projects them into the future and provides implications of these trends for the agriculture and food industries.

For a free copy, write: Market Research and Information Section, Agriculture Development Branch, Agriculture Canada, Sir John Carling Building, 930 Carling Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0C5.

Nutrition Recommendations: The Report of the Scientific Review Committee

The aim of this key Canadian nutrition document is to provide guidance to Canadians over two years of age, in making food choices that will supply recommended levels of essential nutrients while reducing the risk of chronic disease. It contains overall nutritional recommendations as well as, the recommended nutrient intakes for key nutrients and other dietary components such as alcohol, caffeine, and aspartame. The cost of this 208-page scientific report is \$18.95 (plus \$3.50 for shipping and handling).

To order: Send cheque or money order to Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Supply and Services Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0S9. State catalogue number H49-42/1990E when ordering.

Action Towards Healthy Eating: The Report of the Communications/Implementation Committee

This companion report to Nutrition Recommendations: The Report of the Scientific Review Committee contains information about how to translate the scientific information into a form appropriate to the public. It also addresses strategies for implementing the new recommendations to professionals and the public.

To obtain a free copy of this report and/or the summary Report of the Scientific Review Committee, Write: Branch Publications Unit, Health Services and Promotion Branch, Department of National Health and Welfare, 5th floor, Jeanne Mance Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 1B4.

Kids Help Phone

This non-profit service provides professional counselling, information, and referral services to children experiencing a wide variety of problems and concerns. The toll free number (1-800-668-6868) is manned 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.

Put the Child First

This resource package was designed to help organizations educate volunteers who work with children about how to recognize signs of the children having been sexually abused

and to know how to respond if told about such victimization.

For more information, contact: Canadian Council on Children and Youth, 2211 Riverside Drive, Suite 14, Ottawa, Ontario, K1H 7X5.

Because They're Young: Active Living for Canadian Children and Youth — A Blueprint for Action

This is a blueprint for action which focuses on the 7.3 million Canadian children and youth, from birth to 19 years of age. It offers concrete strategies and program tools for achieving the goal of having all children and youth living actively, regardless of age, sex, physical ability, or family income. A second publication, *"From Blueprints to Action: An Invitation to Act"*, is a "how-to" companion document.

To order: Available in both official languages, the "Blueprint" can be obtained from the National Children and Youth Fitness Office, Suite 312, 1600 Gloucester, Ontario, K1B 5N4. *From Blueprints to Action* is available in English and French from Fitness Canada, Children and Youth Unit, 365 Laurier Avenue West, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0X6.

Visions

✓ Visions is the name of the publication replacing the bulletin entitled *Food Etc...* As the new name implies, this free Agriculture Canada publication provides information on consumer food trends.

To be put on the mailing list, contact: Market Research and Information Section, Food Development Division, Agriculture Development Branch, Agriculture Canada, Sir John Carling Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0C5.

✓ Growing Together: A Vision of Canada's Agri-Food Industry

This federal discussion paper on agri-food policy was released by Agriculture Canada in late 1989. It sets a vision for the future, based on four pillars: more market responsiveness, greater self-reliance in the agri-food sector, a national policy that recognized regional diversity, and increased environmental sustainability.

To obtain a free copy, contact: Communications Branch, Agriculture Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0C7 (refer to publication 5270/E).

✓ Clips

Want to keep up-to-date on education-related activities of the federal government? If so, then getting on the free mailing list for *CLIPS* which is published from time to time is a must!

To be put on the mailing list, write to: Education Research and Promotion Directorate, Education Support Section, Department of the Secretary of State of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0M5.

Canadian Plastics Recycling Directory

Released by the publishers of *Canadian Plastic Magazine* in summer 1990, this directory has four sections. They are:

Repossessors (companies that take post-industrial or post-consumer plastics and turn them back into useable raw materials), Suppliers (companies that manufacture equipment for plastics reprocessing or supply raw materials specifically for reprocessing), Brokers and Collectors (buyers and sellers of used materials), and Consultants (companies with expertise in plastics recycling). The cost of the directory is \$65.00.

To order: Mail cheque or money order to Canadian Plastics, 1450 Don Mills Road, Don Mills, Ontario M3B 2X7.

Post-Secondary Education in Canada

The Federal and Provincial Support to Post-Secondary Education in Canada: A Report to Parliament provides an overview of post-secondary education in Canada, including its varied provincial education systems and the federal government's concerns and activities.

To obtain a free copy, contact: Department of the Secretary of State of Canada.

Water 2020

This report was prepared by the Science Council of Canada, the country's national advisory agency on science and technology policy. It identifies and examines the key issues facing water-use management and sets the agenda for water-use management into the 21st century.

To obtain a copy, write to: Science Council of Canada, 100 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa, Ontario, K1P 5M1.

Health Promotion

The field of health promotion is a relatively new and rapidly evolving one. To help keep abreast of current philosophies as well as health promotion's components (eg. community development, social marketing, public policy), an excellent and free quarterly to which to subscribe is *Health Promotion*.

To be put on the mailing list, write: Health Promotion Directorate, Health Services and Promotion Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 1B4.

Starting a Health-Related Project?

A resource kit, designed for use by community groups embarking on, or involved in health-related projects is being developed by Health and Welfare Canada. Pilot testing is scheduled for fall 1990 with actual release to happen by April 1991. It includes information on program development (eg. writing proposals, locating funding sources), program management (eg. effective lobbying, social marketing techniques), needs assessment (eg. setting goals/objectives, methodologies), and evaluation (eg. quantitative vs. qualitative, methodologies). The name of this kit is *Community Action Pack*.

For more information, contact: CHENA Project, Health Services and Promotion Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 1B4.

... In Products

Energy Efficient Windows

Heat mirror windows keep more heat inside the home in winter, outside in summer. A thin mylar film coated with

metallic oxide is mounted between the two panes of a double-glazed window unit.

The film is a selective filter of light which blocks both infra-red (heat) and ultra-violet light from passing through the window. It reflects heat back into the room in winter, and keeps it out in summer. The amount of ultra-violet light transmitted is also dramatically reduced, thereby reducing furniture and fabric fading.

Heat mirror comes in several formulas, the choice depending upon the amount of heat you want to pass through the glass.

Source: *Calgary Herald*, May 3, 1990.

The Truth About Tropical Oils

Tropical oils have received bad press regarding their high levels of saturated fat, the type of fat linked to elevated blood cholesterol and heart disease risk.

Should foods containing tropical oils (palm, palm kernel, and coconut oils) be avoided? A healthy concern about them is recommended but given the fact that tropical oils are a relatively minor source of saturated fat in the average North American diet (less than 3% of fat consumed and less than 1% of energy consumed in the United States), consumers shouldn't be obsessed about them. Consumers are well advised to reduce their total fat intake, in line with the 1990-released Nutrition Recommendations, rather than focusing only on tropical oils.

A footnote — several food manufacturers have decided to eliminate tropical oils from their products. Product reformulation may involve substitution of hydrogenated vegetable oil for tropical oil, resulting in little change in the saturated fat content of the product.

Source: *Rapport*, Vol. 5, No. 2, April 1990.

... In Ideas

Ontario Goes Beyond Energuide

Energuide regulations, in effect since 1978, require major household appliances sold in Canada to bear labels indicating their energy consumption levels. This program does not set performance requirements.

Ontario's Bill 82 (the Energy Efficiency Act) goes a step beyond the federal Energuide program, setting into motion the development of nationally recognized energy efficiency standards. Not only will the CSA standards under Bill 82 set labelling requirements, but they will also set minimum performance requirements to which products sold or leased in Ontario will have to adhere. Since research has shown that a significant percentage of consumers are not aware that the lower the number of kilowatt hours listed on the Energuide label, the more energy efficient the appliance is, the effects of having performance standards will be far reaching. It will increase industrial competitiveness and increase investment in energy efficiency, thus creating new jobs. It will reduce the provincial energy bill which would increase consumer spending power, reduce vulnerability to changes in international energy prices, and reduce the environmental impact of energy production, transmission, and use.

New energy efficient standards covering ranges, dishwashers, clothes washers, and dryers became effective March 31, 1990; refrigerators/freezers took effect July 1, 1990; gas-fired furnaces become effective October 1, 1990; and ground and water source heat pumps take effect December 31, 1990.

Source: *CSA and the Consumer*, Spring 1990.

Will That be Cash, Credit or Debit?

An exciting new alternative to centuries-old cash and to relatively newborn credit cards, the debit card will give consumers the convenience of cash and the security of plastic.

While innovative, debit cards should not be considered as completely foreign. The philosophy applied to accessing funds in a retail outlet environment is the same as that for automated banking machines. The consumer gives the debit card with the purchase to the cashier and it is run through the terminal along with the amount of the transaction. The consumer is given the PIN (personal identification number) pad to verify the amount and code in the appropriate chequing or saving account. The consumer returns the PIN pad to the cashier and the transaction is completed in seconds.

Debit cards are seen as a win-win situation for consumers, retailers, and financial institutions. For customers, they mean a welcome end to discovering you cannot make a purchase because you don't have enough cash and writing NSF cheques because you miscalculated the balance of your account. Because debit cards give immediate withdrawal of funds, there is no bill awaiting the customer at month-end. They provide security too — the card, if lost, is useless to others without knowing your confidential PIN number.

For retailers and financial institutions, the debit card is seen as a means of offering customers an additional payment method. It will also reduce cash and cheque — handling costs — costs which are ultimately passed on to consumers. It provides guaranteed payments — losses due to bad cheques will be reduced.

A pilot of the debit card system in the retail market began in June 1990 in the Ottawa-Hull area. But it will only be when cashiers ask customers nationwide: "Will that be cash, credit or debit?" that it can be said that Canada has entered the year of the debit card.

Source: *Canadian Banker*, Vol. 97, No. 3, May/June 1990.

The New Nutrition Recommendations

On October 1, 1987, Jake Epp, the then Minister of National Health and Welfare, announced the appointment of a committee to "review and revise the nutrition recommendations for a healthy Canadian population to ensure up-to-date nutrition recommendations which will promote and maintain health and reduce the risk of nutrition-related diseases".

The resulting recommendations were announced in Spring 1990. They are:

- The Canadian diet should provide energy consistent with the maintenance of body weight within the recommended range.
- The Canadian diet should include essential nutrients in amounts recommended.

- The Canadian diet should include no more than 30% of energy as fat (33g/1000Kcal or 39g/5000KJ) and no more than 10% as saturated fat (11g/1000Kcal or 13g/5000KJ).
- The Canadian diet should provide 55% of energy as carbohydrates (138g/1000Kcal or 165g/5000KJ) from a variety of sources.
- The sodium content of the Canadian diet should be reduced.
- The Canadian diet should include no more than 5% of total energy as alcohol, or two drinks daily, whichever is less.
- The Canadian diet should contain no more caffeine than the equivalent of four regular cups of coffee per day.
- Community water supplies containing less than 1 mg/litre should be fluoridated to that level.

At the same time the Scientific Committee was developing the recommendations, a Communications/Implementation Committee was working on strategies to translate and communicate these recommendations to the public. Their report also was released in spring 1990. Look for a new "Canada's Food Guide — type publication" in 1991.

How to Motivate Audiences

Setting out to change people's attitudes and behaviors isn't as easy as it appears. But some helpful hints include:

- Don't rely on graphic images alone if you want to change attitudes. Instead, suggest specific actions our audience can take to do what you want. The images, especially if they are negative (e.g. showing pictures of child abuse), may paralyze people and prevent them from acting.
- Realize you can change behavior without changing attitudes. Attitudes are often deep-seated and hard to change permanently. But you can change behavior on a short-term basis. An interoffice fitness challenge may get a competitive-natured inactive person to participate.
- Avoid moral arguments if you can. Instead, stress the practical reasons for embracing the position.
- Keep to the mainstream. Radical positions get a less favorable reception than middle-of-the-road positions. "Never using paper towels" is a stance fewer people will buy into than "trying to make a roll of paper towels last twice as long" for the sake of the environment.
- Don't offend the people you hope to change. Avoid characterizing opponents or their positions. A diet product company does itself a disservice if it characterizes overweight people as "irresponsible and out of control".

Source: *Communication Briefings*, Vol. 9, No. 6, April 1990.

National Literacy Program

Since its receiving permanent status in the fall of 1988, the federally funded National Literacy Program has shared its \$22 million/year with more than 300 different projects. These projects have all shared a common set of objectives and priorities: development of educational materials, improved coordination and exchange of information; increased public awareness; improved access to literacy programs; and research.

For more information, contact: National Literacy Secretariat, Multiculturalism and Citizenship Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0M5.

Textiles and the Environment

Environmental experts say that the textile industry is not a bad environment offender, ranging somewhere between low and moderate in air emissions and waste production. Nevertheless, this decade of environmental consciousness will push the textile industry to more pollution prevention. The 1990s will pose environmental challenges in international competition, new regulations, and public perception — and then there will be the challenges that the textile industry imposes on itself. Some self-inflicted challenges have already begun:

- Monsanto and Union Carbide have announced that they will reduce toxic releases 90% by 1992. (Monsanto pledges to eliminate toxic air emissions completely within the next 10 years.)
- DuPont has already eliminated hazardous waste in some plants, with a goal of eliminating all its unrecyclable waste by the year 2000.

Some innovative and environmentally sound projects are underway in the textile industry:

- Burlington Industries donates nitrogen-rich textile waste sludge to local farmers. Though no money is made on the venture, Burlington avoids landfill fees and the sludge is put to good use.
- A U.S. hosiery manufacturer donates materials left over from making socks to a government funded organization which provides a workplace for the handicapped. They in turn wash and bale the remnants to sell to firms who recycle the waste into carpet backing.
- Kenyon Industries, a finisher of man-made fabrics developed an on-site lagoon system containing waste-eating microbes.

And for those environmental challenges that are not self-inflicted, the greatest challenge will be in finding people trained with environmental knowledge to do the job.

Source: *Textile World*, April 1990.

21st Century Fashion

Fashion forecasters often predict trends for the next two or three seasons, but what about fashion future — as in the 21st century?

A panel of five internationally famous designers was recently asked to share their ideas. Some maybe no more unrealistic than space travel may have seemed shortly after World War II... It was predicted that women will continue to demand more and more from clothing and fabrics. High performance fabrics will require knowledge of classical sewing techniques, as well as new technology to deal with the stretch properties inherent in clothes of the future. One designer suggested women of the future could benefit from garments made in a white fabric designed to be spray-painted with color that later washes out — leaving a clean canvas for the next color creation.

Lycra will still be around but it will need to be developed in ways that relate to the over-40 body. The woman of the 21st century may dress in climate-controlled, environmentally safe jumpsuits. More sizing in small, medium, and large, rather than by numbered sizing systems was predicted. Undergarments such as girdles may return as an

important foundation for the fuller figure. The computer will continue to strongly influence clothing construction techniques.

Source: *Sew News*, March 1990.

The Farm Community

The farm community has undergone numerous major changes in the last several decades:

- The number of farms in Canada has dropped sharply from a peak of almost 733,000 in 1941 to fewer than 300,000 in 1986. The sharpest decline occurred during the 1950s and 1960s.
- The total farm population has dropped from more than 3 million Canadians (27% of the total population) in 1941 to only 930,000 (4% of all Canadians) by 1986. The percentage of farm residents varies considerably by province from a high of 17% in Saskatchewan to a low of 0.4% in Newfoundland.
- The decline in average income of farm families between 1980 and 1985 in constant 1985 dollars fell more among farm families (5%) than all families (1%). As a result, the average income for farm families (\$35,400) was about 92% that for all families (\$38,700).
- With regard to farm debts, the farm operators' average interest payments were \$10,800 per farm in 1985. Overall, 61% of farm operators made interest payments that year, while the remaining 39% reported no such payments. Generally, the larger the farm the greater the debt and the younger the operator, the greater the debt.

Source: *Canadian Social Trends*, Statistics Canada, Spring 1990.

Tracking Nutrition Trends

A market research study entitled *Tracking Nutrition Trends* was done in Canada in late 1989. Two key dietary components — fat and fibre were the focus of this study. Some key findings include:

- Most Canadian adults consider nutrition important when choosing their food. Only 14% of respondents considered nutrition of little or no importance.
- Fat and fibre were key consumer concerns, preempted only by chemical residues in or on food. More than one third of respondents indicated they were "very concerned" about each of these three issues; 29% indicated they were "very concerned" about cholesterol.
- Canadians concerned about fat were taking action, but they did not seem entirely clear about what they should be doing.
- Relatively few Canadians expected to reduce their fat intake in the near future.
- Fibre-conscious Canadians tended to be better informed and more specific about the changes they had initiated to increase their fibre intake than those consumers who had made changes in their fat intake.
- Fewer Canadians than those expected to reduce their fat intake said they planned to increase their fibre intake.
- The most common reason cited for decreasing fat or increasing fibre intake was "to feel better".
- The main source of nutrition information (70% of consumers) was radio and television, followed by magazines (65%), friends/relatives (62%), labels (61%), newspapers/books (60%), physicians (54%), and dietitians/nutritionists (29%). When asked which sources of nutrition information they would trust for accurate

and reliable information, 45% cited the family physician and 19% said dietitians/nutritionists.

Fat and fibre are key issues for both health professionals and the public. Now that the awareness exists, we need to continue to work on increasing knowledge and changing behaviors of consumers.

Source: *Rapport*, Vol. 5, No. 2, April 1990.

"Counting In Canada's Homeless"

The 1991 census will be the first census in Canada to

attempt to count homeless people. It is believed that rising unemployment, the scarcity of low cost housing, and limited social programs have all led to an increase in the homeless population in Canada. Reaching them and getting information from them will be no easy task.

Filling out a questionnaire won't guarantee a new and better life for the homeless, but finding out about this largely unknown part of our population can be an important first step.

Source: *Focus For the Future*, Statistics Canada, December 1989.

Call for Papers 1990-1991

The *Canadian Home Economics Journal* invites articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest.

Submission deadlines:

Spring	December 15, 1990
Summer	March 1, 1991
Fall	June 15, 1991
Winter	September 15, 1991

Demande d'articles 1990-1991

La *Revue canadienne d'économie familiale* invite des articles écrits par des spécialistes en économie familiale de même que ceux de toute personne intéressée à promouvoir le bien-être des individus et des familles. Les articles traitant d'aspects sociaux ou apportant quelque information que ce soit dans les divers champ du domaine de l'économie familiale sont particulièrement bienvenus.

Dates limites d'envoi des manuscrits:

Printemps	15 décembre 1990
Été	1 ^{er} mars 1991
Automne	15 juin 1991
Hiver	15 septembre 1991

What do you say when . . . ?

What do you say when asked about the safety of food cooked in a microwave oven?

Yvonne McNicoll

In the early part of 1990, there was a great furor in the media about the safety of some foods, in particular chicken and milk, cooked in the microwave oven. The concerns of consumers have increased as a result of media misinterpretation of several recent studies.

The Chicken Scarce

The concern about cooking meat, especially poultry, in the microwave oven, relates to food poisoning. Salmonella is a concern in undercooked poultry since this bacteria is estimated to be in 70% of Canada's chicken. The final recommended temperature for cooked chicken is 82 degrees C to 85 degrees C (180 to 185 degrees F), well above the lethal temperature of 60 degrees C (140 degrees F) for salmonella. While Lindsay (1986) reports that salmonella did survive microwave cooking in 5 chickens, the sample was very small (9 chickens), the chicken was not covered or turned part-way through cooking, and no standing time was allowed. It is interesting to note that of the 2500 reported cases of food poisoning per week in the United Kingdom, not one case has been documented which implicates the microwave oven (IMPI, 1990).

The study that created the recent media furor about food safety was commissioned in the U.K. by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Foods (MAFF). To test the uniformity of microwave heating of previously prepared food, mashed potatoes inoculated with listeria were heated in 70 models of microwave ovens. Initial results showed 30% of the ovens failed to bring the mashed potatoes to a minimum temperature (70 degrees C for 2 minutes) in an even pattern throughout the sample (MAFF, 1990). The research team did *not* follow manufacturer's instructions to rotate, stir, reposition, or elevate. Industry replication of the test procedure, following manufacturer's recommendations,

resulted in all but one of the models of microwave oven meeting the minimum temperature criteria; that one model was removed from the marketplace.

The test results from this study apply only to the specific load (mashed potatoes), the size and geometrics of the dish, and the heating time. Any changes in moisture content or container size and shape would affect the study results. Test results cannot be extrapolated to other foods, such as chicken. Because of its conformation, presence of bone, fat content, and the variables of cooking muscle and skin, chicken has a different cooking pattern than re-heated mashed potatoes. Chicken is not a uniform food as are mashed potatoes.

At no time prior to or following this study has MAFF stated that it considers microwave ovens unsafe.

To put safety concerns in perspective, consumers must use good food handling practices and follow manufacturer's recommendations for cooking. When cooking poultry or meat in the microwave oven:

- Cover chicken and meat with waxed paper, parchment paper, or plastic wrap, unless directed otherwise.
- Rotate dish part-way through cooking.
- Stir, when directed by recipe, to oven heating process.
- Allow for standing time for *all* meat and poultry dishes to complete cooking. Use a thermometer to check internal temperatures (180 degrees F to 185 degrees F for poultry after standing time).
- Use visual cues to check that food is cooked; pierce the thigh of a chicken to check if the juices are running clear, not pink; insert a knife into custards or quiches halfway between the edge and the centre to see if the knife comes out clean. Cooking time alone is not an absolute indicator of doneness.

Microwaving Milk for Baby

The other concern that has arisen from media reports involves heating milk in a microwave oven. Researchers from the University of Vienna heated 5 mL samples of milk in sealed tubes for 10 minutes on high power. Because the samples were sealed, they were unable to boil and the

Yvonne McNicoll, BSc, PHEc, is a Residential Energy Advisor with Edmonton Power in Edmonton, Alberta. Edited by Katherine Loughlin, BSc, PHEc.

temperatures of the milk well exceeded 100 degrees C. There was amino acid breakdown and a color change in the milk. Control samples heated to 80 degrees C and held for 10 minutes and other samples heated to varying degrees showed no changes. The study bore no relation to the way a consumer would heat milk for a baby.

To safely heat milk or formula in the microwave:

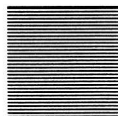
- Use glass or dishwasher-safe plastic bottles. Avoid using disposable liners. The liners are made from a microwave-safe plastic so toxicity is not the issue but uneven heating of the milk can cause the seams to split.
- Remove the nipple and cap before heating as the nipple will deteriorate over time and become soft.
- Heat the milk or formula to lukewarm. Always shake the milk after warming and do a wrist check for temperature.

Microwave ovens are a convenient, energy efficient, and safe way to prepare foods. Consumers who practise good

kitchen sanitation and hygiene, follow the manufacturer's recommendations for their oven, and use visual cues in addition to cooking time to gauge doneness, need not fear food poisoning when they cook poultry or meat in their microwave. As for heating milk, there is no evidence that microwave cooking causes anything but a thermal reaction in foods.

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Donna Cottell

On the Job

Profile of Donna Cottell A Home Economist as a Building Contractor

By Karen Webster

A job that is a challenge, exciting, innovative, suited to your talents and abilities, financially rewarding, close to home, and one that you enjoy — sound too good to be true? For Donna Cottell in Vancouver, it is a reality. Donna is a building contractor in the west side of Vancouver who specializes in the renovation of older homes. Since the incorporation of *D.C. Homespace Projects Ltd.* in 1986, Donna has developed her business into one which, in 1989, is expected to gross half a million dollars. Good planning and preparation led to this success. It began with an idea and a challenge.

The idea was born about ten years ago when the Cottells decided to renovate their 1940 bungalow. Unimpressed with the management skills of the contractors she consulted and concerned about the finished product, Donna decided to work with an architect and contract the one hundred thousand dollar renovation herself. The renovation was a success, no tales of woe, all frustrations overcome. Looking for a career to suit her

personal and professional needs, Donna began to play with the idea of managing renovations for others. The challenge was to create a job for herself in an area where there was a recognized need.

With a degree in home economics from the University of British Columbia, and with experience as a high school home economics teacher, a restaurant manager at Yale University, a homemaker, and as her own contractor, Donna knew she had the management skills. What was needed was training in the field. A certificate in building technology from the British Columbia Institute of Technology followed. One of her first major projects was the renovation of a 1906 building into a Women's Shelter House. Since then there have been many restorations, some homes built as early as the teens, and none younger than the fifties. Donna works on one project at a time finding this has allowed her to concentrate and give the client the assurance of her full attention.

Donna consults with those considering renovations, spending a great deal of time with the client family before and during a project. Before beginning any work, she helps determine what they really want based on what is possible, and what they can afford

("budgeting is a real problem for families"). She provides an accurate estimate, and works on a cost, plus basis. According to Donna, a renovation is an invasion of privacy, hard on relationships, and constantly messy. She does what she can to smooth the process. This includes setting up a temporary kitchen and private spaces, and a willingness to be flexible as the work progresses.

When clients hire Donna to do a renovation, they have hired a design team. An architect, who works as a consultant, provides aesthetic expertise, and a concern for maintaining harmony with the original style of the house as well as, knowledge of local zoning and development bylaws. Donna provides the input into family needs, and costs, and supervises the work from beginning to end. A landscape design consultant is also available. Donna has kept what she calls a client book which includes before, during, and after photos, articles which have been written about her work, and references. This provides a 'talking point' when working with a potential client. According to Donna, people are so afraid of renovations that they "can't even hear". The client book allows them to see what is possible and to ask questions more easily. During the job, Donna utilizes blueprints, working drawings to

Donna Cottell (BHE, University of British Columbia; Building Engineering Technology Certificate, BCIT) is a general contractor specializing in heritage restoration or renovation of Vancouver residences.

explain the process fully. This, she said, empowers the client and gives them a feeling of control.

Although Donna has a foreman, two full-time, one part-time employee, and a crew which varies in size depending on the job, she tries to spend seventy percent of her time on the job site. She includes her two daughters, when not in school. While she does some of the finishing and fine work herself, she feels her skills lie in the management area; therefore, that is where she concentrates her time. However, the client is charged a finishing rate instead of the management rate if that is what she has been doing.

Donna describes her role with her employees as a balance between mothering (she has two male single parents on staff) and being the boss. She feels there is a delicate balance between a concern for their well-being and becoming too involved in their lives. Communication with staff is very important and probably easier because she is a woman. Donna doesn't hesitate to share her feelings about the stress or concerns of the job and she feels this helps to build employee loyalty and fosters mutual respect. Personalities differ, and to avoid potential problems,

she spends the necessary time before hiring assessing potential employee skills and how they would fit into the team. Staff turn-over is not high.

Being one of only a few women in the contracting business does present challenges. Being respected rather than viewed as a novelty or simply humored and "patted on the head" is important to being able to do a job. Donna says she is not "hard-nosed or tough", but she is true to herself and won't back off from collecting money owed or in seeing that sub-trades stick to their agreement. This could include climbing up on the roof to debate with the roofer or crawling around in the basement to inspect a plumbing or electrical problem. *Canadian Women in Construction* which is based in Vancouver and is a forty member organization has been very supportive. Donna is the only renovations contractor in the organization.

To date, Donna has not advertised. News of her expertise has spread by word-of-mouth and there has always been a new project waiting in the wings. According to Donna, the most powerful (non)advertising occurred because of a course she and a friend, who has a building inspection firm,

conduct in early spring. The course, *Renovation Under Control*, is available through community centers in West-side Vancouver, and takes three evenings or Nite School in a Day, Saturday format. The course covers legal and technical aspects, how to get started, how to hire in order to insure a satisfactory job, how to figure out the costs, and how to budget. The teaching team provides a reference list and guidance in interpreting blueprints and working drawings. The course has been very successful and was recently featured on the front page of the *Real Estate Weekly*.

According to Donna, renovation is full of compromises. It is important to be comfortable with the mechanical and technical aspects of the job so you can recognize when you are being "strung a line". Donna calls herself a home economist and has maintained her relationship to her home economics roots through membership in local home economics professional associations. Donna said the skills learned as a home economist are broad and adaptable, and she has demonstrated this well. "People know us by what we do. Whatever we get into, home economics training is never wasted."

If you are interested in reviewing a book, please contact the Book Review Editor, stating your area of interest. A complimentary book which may be kept will be sent to you for review.

Book Review Editor

Linda West
410 Stafford Dr. North
Lethbridge, Alberta
T1H 2A9

Is There a Speech Inside Your? by Don Aslett. (1989). Cincinnati, OH: Writer's Digest Books, distributed in Canada by Prentice-Hall Canada Inc., 131 pages; \$13.95.

A well-known author and speaker, Mr. Aslett shares his expertise in a humorous, easy-to-read style. This book is a comprehensive reference for anyone who plans to speak in public — from a high school student preparing their first oral presentation to the seasoned speaker faced with a new medium.

In addition to basic information, Aslett includes ideas for handling bad introductions, hostile audiences, lost props, and noisy auditoriums. His assertive guidelines for professional speakers would be helpful to someone developing a speaking career. Mr. Aslett's concise list of suggested do's and don'ts for special situations would be useful to anyone asked to speak at a funeral, graduation, or award ceremony.

This book is not only for speakers themselves, but also people organizing conferences and booking speakers, as there are many excellent suggestions for how to facilitate a good listening environment.

A thorough index and table of contents make it possible to pinpoint specifics quickly.

This book would be a useful reference in most libraries.

Reviewed by:

Jean Wight, PHEc
Freelance Home Economist
Newdale, Manitoba

Smart Talk. The Art of Savvy Business Conversation by Roberta Roesch. (1989). New York: American Management Association, 246 pages; \$19.95.

Smart Talk, distributed in Canada by Prentice-Hall Canada Inc., is a useful guide for anyone who may have had difficulty speaking in the past or who may want to hone their verbal skills.

As research for the book, Roesch interviewed a variety of business people — supervisors and managers, presidents, management consultants, training directors, educators, communications experts, and industrial psychologists.

The book is laid out in an easy-to-read manner. It is broken into four parts: Your Verbal Strength, Put Your Best Words Forward, Take Control of Negative Situations, and The Final Word. Within each part there are a number of chapters which allow you to zero in on a particular situation. The titles of the chapters give a good indication of the information to be covered; Telephone Tactics, Offering Criticism, Conflicts and Confrontations, and Firings and Terminations are some to highlight. Self-evaluation is encouraged. The book opens with a verbal I.Q. quiz and there are similar quizzes throughout the book.

Although *Smart Talk* was written for the manager on the way up the corporate ladder, there is much common-sense information that can be applied to many situations. The last chapter alone gives more than 300 quick-response phrases to use when we are put on the spot.

Reviewed by:

Deb Campbell, BA(HEc) BEd, PHEc
Lecturer, Centralia College
Huron Park, Ontario

Marketing Textiles: From Fiber to Retail by Allen C. Cohen. (1989). New York: Fairchild Publications, 443 pages; price unknown.

Marketing Textiles: From Fiber to Retail is the final book in a series of three written by Cohen. In it, Cohen addresses the importance of marketing textile products to the consumer. While other texts have discussed the marketing of apparel to ultimate consumers, Cohen focuses his attention on the marketing of textiles to industrial consumers. He emphasizes that it is crucial to market textiles aggressively to industrial consumers in order to seize opportunities for global trade.

This text is organized into three main parts. Part I (chapters 1-12) addresses the American domestic market for textiles and includes historical information plus an overview of the various participants in the textile industry. Part II (chapters 13-16) deals with the international market. U.S. trade policies, international trade laws, and the multifiber arrangement are highlighted. Part III (chapters 17-18) addresses major problems facing the textile and apparel industries and provides some possible solutions to these problems.

The text is supplemented with listings of various organizations that service the textile and apparel industries. It is unfortunate, but not surprising, given the book's American focus, that only one Canadian organization is included among the listings. Students will appreciate Cohen's straightforward writing style. Chapters also contain photographs and flow charts that enrich the text. Many are enhanced by explanatory notes directing the reader to notice particular details.

This textbook would appeal to a student interested in pursuing a career in the U.S. textile or apparel industry. It is suitable for a second or third year

level university course where students have a knowledge of marketing and textile science fundamentals. Since this book addresses textile marketing from an American perspective, it has limited appeal for Canadian students. Consequently, it is most suitable as a supplementary text or as a resource for the library.

An instructor's guide is also available. It includes a series of objectives for each chapter, answers to review questions in the text, plus some suggestions for student assignments.

Reviewed by:

Janet Menec, BHEc, MSc
Winnipeg, Manitoba

Esprit: The Comprehensive Design Principle by Douglas Tompkins. (1989). Tokyo: Robundo Publishing Co.; \$135.00.

Esprit: The Comprehensive Design Principle successfully attempts to give an overview of a variety of contemporary applications of color, line, shape, space, and texture in the world of fashion merchandising, graphics and packaging, architecture, and display. The layout and graphics of this book are well-designed and therefore complement the subject matter. The principles of design and design philosophy are presented in an easy-to-read style ideally suited to the lay person or beginner who wishes to

become acquainted with the nature and problems associated with the business of contemporary design and merchandising.

Reviewed by:

Marlene Cox-Bishop, PhD
Associate Professor of Design
Faculty of Home Economics
The University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta

Food for Success by Dr. Barbarah Tinskamper PhD, RD, Vancouver, BC. Good Times Publishing Company, 143 pages; soft cover \$12.95.

Food For Success is different from most diet books because it is written in story format: Dorothy and Gerry want to change their diet and lifestyle. Gerry visits a nutritionist at a medical centre for a diet to prevent heart disease. Dorothy sees the Medicine Man, a physician, for a weight-loss diet that recognizes the role of emotions in eating and dieting.

Gerry's diet follows U.S. recommendations to reduce cholesterol and includes omega-3 fatty acids. No mention is made of reducing salt intake.

The weight-loss diet for Dorothy is a basic plan with foods from six food groups. It permits 1000 Kcalories per day and does not meet the minimum amounts in Canada's Food Guide. A 1300 Kcalorie diet for a man and a special 700 Kcalorie diet for short,

inactive women are also included. This "tight budget" diet is low in meats, milks, and bread.

The author permits one 150-calorie treat each day to provide emotional nourishment and to avoid the sense of deprivation that often accompanies dieting. Additional treats can be earned through exercise. Multi-vitamin/mineral pills and a potassium supplement are recommended while food intake is limited.

The book is written and published in Canada. Only R.D.A.'s are used and volumes are given in Imperial units. The book is easy-to-read with several charts, tables, etc. to complement the story line. The inner thoughts of the couple provide interesting commentary on the process of making lifestyle changes.

The information does not reflect current Canadian guidelines so it would not be useful in counselling situations. The diet is low in energy and unless chosen very carefully, many not meet nutritional requirements. However, its presence in Canadian bookstores gives consumers a book that contains sound nutrition background information and is a preferable choice to many of the diet books currently available.

Reviewed by:

Linda Clark Lowry, PHEc, MS
Nutrition Consultant
Neepawa, Manitoba

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- Beauvais, J.E. (See Macaulay, A.C.)
- Billington, C.J. (See Levine, A.S.)
- Brighenti, F. (See Jenkins, D.J.A.)
- Bruhn, C.M. (See Schultz, H.G.)
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Guide for Authors

Canadian Home Economics Journal

Contributions to the Journal

The *Journal* welcomes articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest. Themes and submission deadlines are printed periodically in the *Journal*. Authors are encouraged to submit articles related to the themes but should not feel bound by this directive.

Depending on the nature of the paper, authors may make their submissions to either the general interest articles or to the research (refereed) section.

Contributions that will be considered for inclusion in the research section are: reports about empirical research, review papers related to topics of current interest, research notes on particular issues, or theoretical forums related to theory development in an area of interest to home economists.

Manuscripts in English and/or French are welcome. Submission of a paper to the *Journal* implies that the paper is original and has not been published or currently submitted for publication elsewhere. If copyright material is used, it is the responsibility of the author to give appropriate credit and to obtain permission for reproduction. The original copy of the written permission must accompany the submission. Manuscripts not conforming to the stated guidelines will be returned to the author(s) without consideration.

Manuscripts accepted for publication, are edited to ensure conformity to *Journal* standards. If extensive editing is required the author(s) will be consulted.

Authors are asked to transfer copyright to the Canadian Home Economics Association by signing a Copyright and Licence-to-Use form. This process facilitates arrangements with indexing and abstracting services, and protects the rights of the author and the publisher.

Disponible en français auprès de la rédactrice

Criteria for Acceptance

Research (Refereed) Section

The goal of this section of the *Journal* is to provide researchers concerned with the well-being of families and individuals an opportunity to publish in a refereed Canadian journal. An author's submission of a research paper implies that the paper is based on original research and not published elsewhere. All articles are submitted for external review. The criteria used include:

- Focus on a significant problem in home economics.
- Scholarly report of new knowledge, confirmation or refinement of known facts, presentation of a critical review of literature, development of a theoretical framework, etc.
- Logical interpretation of data.
- In the case of empirical research, evidence of sound research methodology in the conduct of the research.
- Well organized and written in a scholarly style.
- Form and length which makes publishing feasible.
- Length limited to 2,000 to 3,000 words excluding references which may be as extensive as required.

General Interest Articles/ Letters to the Editor (Reader Forum)

All manuscripts are read by the editors and many are submitted to external reviewers. Criteria for acceptance include:

- Content that is original, addresses current topics, provides fresh insights, or new information.
- Clear, concise, logical presentation that will appeal to a constituent group of CHEA.
- Appropriate documentation of sources and conformity to the style guides adopted for the *Journal*.
- Manuscripts for articles limited to 1,500 to 2,500 words and letters to the editor to 300 words.

Preparation of the Manuscript

References for style, format, and spelling are:

- American Psychological Association. (1983). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Strunk, W., Jr., & White, E.B. (1979). *The Elements of Style* (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- *Gage Canadian Dictionary*

The submission should include the following sections: title page, abstract, text of the manuscript, references, tables (one per page), figures and other graphics (one per page), titles for figures and graphics (on a separate page), acknowledgements (on a separate page).

In preparing the manuscript adherence to the following details will speed consideration of the manuscript.

Title Page

Because papers are or may be submitted anonymously to reviewers, the following information should appear only on the title page:

- Title of paper—be concise.
- A short biography, including as a minimum, name and present position of author(s); degrees held (including granting institution).
- For research papers, give the institution at which research was conducted and date of execution.
- Name, phone number, and address of author to whom correspondence about the paper should be addressed.

Abstract

The abstract page follows the title page and starts with the complete title of the paper but does not contain the name(s) of the author(s). It should be:

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- Submitted in both English and French. (If the abstract is submitted in only one language, arrangements for translation will be made by the editors).

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The author is fully responsible for correct sentence structure, good English/French, and accurate spelling. In order to ensure that the paper will be understandable to all readers, it should contain a minimum of specialized language.

Style, organization, and format. Scholarly presentation of the material is the responsibility of the author(s). Organize material in a logical sequence, incorporate sub-headings, and, in the case of research or theoretical articles, give enough details of techniques so that other readers can clearly understand the author's ideas or execution of the research. Avoid repetition of ideas in the paper.

- Begin the text of the manuscript on a separate page with at least a 3-cm margin on all sides.
- Number each page on the top right-hand corner.
- Number the lines of type on each page in the left margin.
- Type double-spaced on one side of the paper.
- Limit the length of manuscripts as indicated in the criteria for each section.

Citations. Citations in the body of the article should be by author's surname, date, and pages cited when reference is made to the work of others either by a direct or indirect quotation. The following examples illustrate the required format.

Campbell and MacFadyen (1984) cautioned . . .
Fetterman (1984) stated: "The inventory . . ." (p. 18)
Research (Buskirk, 1981; Serfass, 1982) indicates . . .

Where reference is made to an article by more than two authors, the first time it appears all names must be listed. In any further reference, use the first listed author and et al. For example:

First reference: Bob, Pringle, and Rijan (1969) reported that . . . ; in any further reference use the format: Bob et al. (1969) favor diets . . .

References

All work cited in the paper must be given in a list of references at the end of the paper. Works that are not cited should not be listed. References are typed on a separate page, double-spaced throughout, alphabetized by first author's surname with paragraph indentation used for the second and successive lines. Several references by the same author are arranged by year of publication. The following examples illustrate APA style. (Note the use of lower case in the titles.)

• Book

Fremes, R., & Sabry, Z. (1981). *NutriScore: The rate yourself plan for better nutrition*. Toronto: Methuen.

• **Journal article** (do not abbreviate journal names). Nostedt, E.M. (1984). Networking. *Canadian Home Economics Journal*, 34(3), 130-132.

• Article or chapter in an edited book

Gurman, A.S., & Kniskern, D.P. (1981). Family therapy outcome research: Knowns and unknowns. In A.S. Gurman & D.P. Kniskern (Eds.), *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 742-775). New York: Brunner/Mazel.

• Government report

Bureau of Nutrition Research. (1983). *Recommended nutrient intakes for Canadians* (4th ed.). Ottawa: Health and Welfare Canada.

Tables

Tables should be kept to a minimum and used only when they add value to the paper. Type each table on a separate page, double-spaced with the complete title at the top of the sheet. Limit the number of characters across the table 40, 60 or 87, and organize the table to make efficient use of the space. Give each table a number and refer to it by that number in the text. Indicate the location of tables as follows:

(Insert Table 1)

There should be no vertical or horizontal lines except those in the heading and at the bottom of the table.

Figures

Figures, including graphs, pictures, line drawings, and flow charts should be included if they will improve clarity, add reader appeal, and are discussed in the text. Graphs and line drawings must be professionally prepared (one per page) in India ink with a mechanical lettering device. The original art work (or a glossy photograph of the original) must be submitted for publication. Authors should note that the use of a typewriter to produce the lettering is *not* acceptable.

Each item should have a clear heading and be numbered (e.g., Figure 1). Placement in the text should be indicated on the manuscript.

Photographs, when submitted, should be good clear prints. Do not write on the front or back and do not attach them to other materials with paper clips or staples. Attach a sheet that includes the caption to the back of the picture with tape.

In preparing graphics it is good practice to prepare them twice the size that will be shown in the text. Lettering should be done using 12- or 14-point characters. Remember that they must then be reduced to fit within the dimensions of the column or page. The finished width in the *Journal* will be 55, 85, or 180 mm.

Additional Information

Authors should consult the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.) for complete information.

Review Process

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Copies of research papers will be sent to two or more qualified referees. Within six weeks the author should receive a summary of the referees' decisions, comments, and suggestions. Referees may recommend acceptance, minor changes, major revisions, or rejection of the paper. If the author agrees with the reviewers' comments, a second draft, incorporating suggested changes should be prepared. If the author does not agree with the suggested changes, justification for that stand may be provided. The paper will be published as soon as possible after it is accepted. Copyright and licence-to-use forms are sent when the paper is accepted.

General Interest Articles

All manuscripts are read by the editors and many are submitted to external reviewers. Authors should receive a report on the acceptability of the paper within four to six weeks.

Submission Information

Four copies of papers intended for the research (refereed) section should be submitted to:

Betty Crown, PhD
Dept. of Clothing & Textiles
301 Printing Services Building
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2N1

Three copies of a manuscript intended for the general interest sections should be submitted to:

Glenda Everett
Lethbridge Community College
3000 College Drive S.
Lethbridge, Alberta
T1K 1L6

All manuscripts are acknowledged as soon as they are received.

Informations pour la soumission des textes

Pour ce qui est de la section des articles d'intérêt général, **trois** copies du texte proposé doivent être expédiées à:

Carmelle Therien-Viau
C.P. 192
Prevost, Quebec J0R 1T0



UNDERGRADUATE COMPETITION FOR STUDY OF GLOBAL ISSUES

THE CHEA GLOBAL AWARENESS AWARD

To encourage awareness of global development issues and their impact on families among students in home economics and related programs, the Canadian Home Economics Association International Development Program, in cooperation with the Association of Canadian Home Economics Students (ACHES), offers the CHEA Global Awareness Award.

ELIGIBILITY:

Undergraduate students from faculties of home economics, home economics education, family and consumer studies, human ecology, foods and nutrition and related programs.

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The winner will receive a \$50 prize and all travel and registration expenses for attending the ACHES Conference in Moncton, New Brunswick, January 9-13, 1991. CHEA may at the discretion of the N-IDC publish or use the winning submission in its development education program.

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CONCOURS DE PREMIER CYCLE PORTANT SUR LES QUESTIONS INTERNATIONALES

LE PRIX DE SENSIBILISATION AUX QUESTIONS INTERNATIONALES

Afin d'encourager les étudiants des programmes d'économie familiale et complémentaires à s'intéresser aux problèmes de développement international et à leur incidence sur les familles, le Programme de développement international de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale offre, de concert avec l'Association canadienne des étudiants d'économie familiale (ACEEF), le Prix de sensibilisation aux questions internationales de l'ACEF.

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Ce concours est ouvert aux étudiants et étudiantes de premier cycle des facultés d'économie familiale, d'éducation à l'économie familiale, d'études familiales et des consommateurs, d'écologie humaine, aliments et nutrition et programmes complémentaires.

NATURE DU CONCOURS :

Un texte original portant sur un problème international et son incidence sur le bien-être des familles. Peut être l'adaptation d'un devoir ou d'un projet trimestriel de recherche et se présenter sous plusieurs formes, notamment le principal article d'un bulletin de nouvelles (maximum 1 000 mots), une feuille d'information, un sujet de cours, une présentation d'affiche, un script audiovisuel. Les concurrents doivent être prêts à faire une brève présentation sur le sujet au congrès annuel de l'ACEEF.

PRIX :

Le gagnant ou la gagnante recevra 50 \$ et le remboursement de ses frais de voyage et d'inscription au congrès de l'ACEEF qui se tiendra à Moncton (Nouveau-Brunswick) du 9 au 13 janvier 1991. L'ACEF peut publier ou utiliser, à l'appréciation du Comité national de développement international, le texte primé pour son programme d'éducation au développement.

DATE LIMITE D'ENVOI :

Adresser les textes au plus tard le 3 décembre 1990 à L'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, Programme d'éducation au développement, 901-151, rue Slater, Ottawa (Ontario) K1P 5H3.

POUR PLUS DE RENSEIGNEMENTS, S'ADRESSER À :

Pat Ulrich, d'éducation au développement de l'ACEF, à l'adresse ci-dessus. Tel.: (613) 238-8817.



Awards Bourses 1991

The Canadian Home Economics Association announces the following awards to outstanding home economics students, for the 1991-1992 academic year.

L'Association canadienne d'économie familiale annonce, pour l'année universitaire 1991-92, les bourses suivantes offertes à des étudiantes exceptionnelles en économie familiale.

Fiftieth Anniversary Scholarship — \$4,000

Application deadline: January 15, 1991

This scholarship was established to commemorate the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Canadian Home Economics Association.

For a graduate in home economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and who is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher academic degree. The award will be based on scholarship, personal qualities, past and/or potential contributions to the profession of home economics, and financial considerations.

CHEA Scholarship Fund Award

Silver Jubilee Scholarship — \$4,000

Application deadline: January 15, 1991

This scholarship was established to commemorate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Canadian Home Economics Association.

For a graduate in home economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and who is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher academic degree. The award will be based on scholarship, personal qualities, past and/or potential contributions to the profession of home economics, and financial considerations.

CHEA Scholarship Fund Award

Mary A. Clarke Memorial Scholarship — \$4,000

Application deadline: January 15, 1991

This scholarship was established as a tribute to Mary Clarke, a valued member of the Canadian Home Economics Association, and President from 1952-1954.

For a graduate in home economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and who is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher degree. The award will be based on scholarship, personal qualities, past and/or potential contributions to the profession of home economics, and financial considerations.

CHEA Scholarship Fund Award

Bourse du cinquantième anniversaire — 4 000 \$

Date limite de candidature: 15 janvier 1991

Cette bourse a été créée pour commémorer le cinquantième anniversaire de la fondation de l'association canadienne d'économie familiale.

Elle s'adresse à une personne diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La bourse sera décernée en fonction des résultats universitaires, des qualités personnelles, des contributions passées et/ou possibles à l'égard de la profession de l'économie familiale, et de la situation financière.

Bourse du Fonds des bourses d'études de l'ACEF

Bourse du vingt-cinquième anniversaire — 4 000 \$

Date limite de candidature: 15 janvier 1991

Cette bourse a été créée pour commémorer le vingt-cinquième anniversaire de la fondation de l'association canadienne d'économie familiale.

Elle s'adresse à une diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La bourse sera attribuée en fonction des résultats universitaires, des qualités personnelles, des contributions antérieures ou possibles à la profession et de la situation financière.

Bourse du Fonds des bourses d'études de l'ACEF

Bourse commémorative Mary A. Clarke — 4 000 \$

Date limite de candidature: 15 janvier 1991

Cette bourse a été créée en hommage à Mary Clarke, membre éminente de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, et présidente de 1952 à 1954.

Elle s'adresse à une diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La bourse sera attribuée en fonction des résultats universitaires, des qualités personnelles, des contributions antérieures ou possibles à la profession et de la situation financière.

Bourse du Fonds des bourses d'études de l'ACEF

GENERAL CRITERIA FOR ALL AWARDS/ CONDITIONS GÉNÉRALES À REMPLIR POUR TOUTES LES DISTINCTIONS

- Completed applications must be postmarked no later than the date given with the award description.
- Application forms are available from the CHEA National Office: 901-151 Slater Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3 Tel: (613) 238-8817, Fax: (613) 238-1677
- Previous CHEA Scholarship winners are eligible to apply for 1991 awards provided they continue to be enrolled in graduate study.
- Applicants must be members of CHEA. Two years membership is necessary for the CSDA Awards.
- Les candidatures doivent être envoyées dûment remplies au plus tard à la date indiquée sur la notice de la distinction, le tampon de la poste faisant foi.
- On peut se procurer des formules de candidature au bureau nationale de l'ACEF: 901-151 rue Slater, Ottawa (Ontario) K1P 5H3 Tél: (613) 238-8817, Fax: (613) 238-1677.
- Les personnes qui ont déjà reçu une bourse d'études de l'ACEF peuvent de nouveau présenter leur candidature en 1991 à la condition qu'elles soient toujours inscrites en deuxième ou troisième cycle.
- Pour poster sa candidature, il faut être membre de l'ACEF. Il faut être avoir été membre pendant deux ans pour recevoir un prix de l'ACIBG.

Nestlé Enterprises Award — \$1,000

Application deadline: January 15, 1991

For a graduate in home economics, who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher degree. Special consideration will be given to a student undertaking post graduate study in foods. The award will be made on the basis of academic achievement, personal qualities, financial need and an intended career in the food industry.

Presented by Nestlé Enterprises Ltd.

Robin Hood Multifoods Limited Award — \$1,000

Application deadline: January 15, 1991

For a graduate in home economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and is undertaking graduate study leading to an advanced degree. The award will be based on academic achievement, personal qualities, past and/or potential contributions to the home economics profession. Preference will be given to the person planning a career in business, in the consumer service (foods) field or food service management.

Presented by Robin Hood Multifoods Limited

Meritorious Research Award — \$1,000

Application deadline: April 30, 1991

2 Awards

For a graduate student in a Canadian university faculty or school of home economics or consumer studies, for a meritorious research paper presented at the time of the annual CHEA Conference. The paper must be in the general area of applied human nutrition or food quality and must not have been previously published. Subject to the usual double blind review process, the paper will be considered for publication in the Research Section of the CHE Journal. In addition to meeting specific research criteria, this research should be in keeping with the mission and aims of the Canadian Home Economics Association. Applicant must have been a CHEA member for at least two years, and application should be supported by recommendations from at least two people.

Presented by the Canadian Soft Drink Association.

Major Body of Research Accomplishments Award — \$1,000

Application deadline: April 30, 1991

For a CHEA member in recognition of a major body of research accomplishments, to be presented at the Annual CHEA Conference. These accomplishments must be published and recognized research in the general area of applied human nutrition or food quality. In addition to meeting specific research criteria, the research must be in keeping with the mission and aims of the Canadian Home Economics Association. Applicants must have been a CHEA member for at least two years, and applications should be supported by recommendations from at least two people.

Presented by the Canadian Soft Drink Association.

Bourse des Entreprises Nestlé Limitée — 1 000 \$

Date limite: 15 janvier 1991

Destinée à une diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La préférence ira à une candidate dont les études sont orientées vers l'alimentation. La bourse sera attribuée en fonction des résultats académiques, des qualités personnelles, des besoins financiers et de l'intention de faire carrière dans l'industrie alimentaire.

Offerte par les Entreprises Nestlé Limitée

Bourse Robin-Hood Multifoods Limitée — 1 000 \$

Date limite: 15 janvier 1991

Destinée à une diplômée en économie familiale qui est citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue et qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'un diplôme supérieur. On attribuera la bourse en fonction des résultats académiques, des qualités personnelles, des contributions antérieures ou possibles à la profession. La préférence ira à une personne qui projette de faire carrière dans les affaires, les services aux consommateurs (alimentation) ou la gestion de services alimentaires.

Offerte par Robin Hood Multifoods Limitée

Prix de mérite en recherche — 1 000 \$

Date limite de candidature: 30 avril 1991

2 prix

Prix décerné à un ou à une étudiante de deuxième ou troisième cycle d'une université canadienne ou d'une école canadienne d'économie familiale ou d'études de consommation, pour une communication émérite présentée au congrès annuel de l'ACEF sur des recherches. La communication doit porter sur le domaine général de la nutrition humaine appliquée ou de la qualité alimentaire et ne pas avoir encore été publiée. Ces travaux doivent répondre à des critères précis de recherche et être conformes à la mission et aux objectifs de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale. Les personnes qui posent leur candidature doivent être membres de l'ACEF depuis au moins deux ans et être recommandées par au moins deux personnes.

Ce prix est décerné par l'Association canadienne de l'industrie des boissons gazeuses.

Prix de reconnaissance pour un ensemble insigne de recherches — 1 000 \$

Date limite de candidature: 30 avril 1991

Prix décerné à un membre de l'ACEF en reconnaissance d'un ensemble insigne de recherches et remis au congrès annuel de l'ACEF. Les travaux doivent avoir été publiés et homologués dans le domaine général de la nutrition humaine appliquée ou de la qualité alimentaire. Ils doivent répondre à des critères précis de recherche et être conformes à la mission et aux objectifs de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale. Les personnes qui posent leur candidature doivent être membres de l'ACEF depuis au moins deux ans et être appuyées par au moins deux personnes.

Ce prix est décerné par l'Association canadienne de l'industrie des boissons gazeuses.



**FAMILIES:
NAVIGATING
THE 90'S**

July 7 - 11, 1991

Halifax Sheraton

Halifax,
Nova Scotia

**CHEA Conference
1991**

**FAMILLES:
TRAVERSER
LES ANNÉES 90**

du 7 au 11 juille

Halifax Sheraton

Halifax,
(Nouvelle-Écosse)

**Congrès de l'ACEF
1991**